1-1-1987

Increasing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education.

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INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MIDDLE MANAGERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A Dissertation Presented

By

PAUL M. BEVILACQUA

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

FEBRUARY 1987

Education

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

"Can't never did anything!" My father, Michael Bevilacqua, who has been a powerful influence in my life, repeated that to me literally hundreds of times before he died in 1959. I have repeated that statement to myself hundreds of times, having internalized it as a personal paradigm.

That paradigm, along with the critical support, patience, and understanding of my wife, Jan, and my children, Kristin and Michael, made it possible for me to complete the doctoral process and this dissertation. The life-long support of my mother, Irene, was also important in shaping my values and setting my personal goals.

Even with the support of my family, the decision to both begin and successfully conclude this doctoral program involved many other people who played important parts at various times.

My committee chairman, Bill Lauroesch, along with members Libby Klemer, and Glen Gordon provided the critical oversight, insight, expertise, and patience that was essential for success. Charlotte Rahaim's vision and confidence were important in providing an opportunity for me and others to continue our doctoral studies in a relevant and manageable degree program. Her advice allowed us to negotiate the pitfalls that serve as barriers to success. Jeff Eiseman's advice and direction was also invaluable at a critical point in the process.

My colleagues at Northern Essex Community College, and those who participated in the interviews, were also essential to my success. I will always be grateful to each of them for their confidence, candor,

time, and support. John Dimitry and Don Ruhl provided the initial encouragement to me to seek admission and the on-going support to continue. Bob McDonald provided long-term support and encouragement, especially when I applied for and received a sabbatical leave. Dick Pastor was a fellow cluster member, fourth member of my comprehensive committee, and resource at critical junctures. John Spurk was very helpful in allowing me to use his office in the Bentley Library while I was on sabbatical. Norm Landry was very important as he advised, supported, word-processed, and was an on-going prod. Chuck Lombardo, my cousin Louise Bevilacqua, and Ed Fice provided key support, advice, and time.

Finally, but most importantly, the critical and timely help of Lorraine Staples and Susan O'Brien literally saved my doctoral life on more than one occasion. Without them the process might never have been completed. To all of them, and the many others who in some way helped me to achieve my goal, I can only say, thank you. I feel that each of them has earned a part of this degree and each of them is part of this dissertation.

ABSTRACT

INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MIDDLE MANAGERS

IN HIGHER EDUCATION

FEBRUARY 1987

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The purpose of this study was to identify salient factors influencing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education and to develop recommendations that will reinforce conditions contributing to effectiveness and alter conditions found to be inhibiting effectiveness. Chairpersons of career divisions in the Massachusetts Community College System were studied.

The case-study approach was utilized, with the interview as the primary method for data collection. The maximum variation sampling strategy with a purposeful sample was used. The primary unit of analysis was the individual chairperson and the primary data source was a sample of 10 chairpersons of career divisions at seven of the System's 15 colleges. The sample comprised 27 percent of the chairpersons of career divisions. Three academic deans and three faculty members of career divisions were also interviewed. The data sources were triangulated. A case record was developed and the data were analyzed.

The data indicated that there was much agreement among all of the data sources as to the factors which influenced the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions. The data revealed that the three basic

categories of factors which influenced the effectiveness of division chairpersons were: leadership skills, organizational conditions, and the attitudes/expectations/values of the division chairpersons.

Several implications were inferred from the findings and several recommedations were made. The recommendations were that: (1) a common job description needed to be developed for all division chairpersons; (2) deans needed to provide annual performance counseling for division chairpersons; (3) staff development opportunities needed to encourage human resource development; (4) the organizational character of community colleges needed to encourage human resource development; (5) division chairpersons needed to be given a substantive role in collective-bargaining negotiations; (6) state government needed to provide additional human and material resources to allow the division chairpersons to function more effectively.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

> "The battleground for business in the 1980's," predicts researcher Florence Skelly, "will be human resources. That's going to be where the action is." The winners will be those that replace fear and suspicion with trust and mutual respect. I predict that managers in the future will be measured by both economic waste and human waste. A manager's rate of turnover will become a major factor in determining whether or not he is promoted. (Hegarty, 1982, p. 19)

The goal of organizations is to achieve their objectives and to do so in a manner which maximizes their resources. Whether the organizations are multi-national conglomerates or non-profit organizations they must be conscious of the financial, material, and human resources available to them; and to use those resources as effectively as possible if the organization is to be successful.

Successful organizations share major attributes that set them apart from unsuccessful organizations. Probably the most important attributes are effective leadership and an organizational character or work environment which motivates workers, at all levels, to work to the highest level of their potential. Leadership is essential in order to create that climate and to provide an environment in which people can meet their own needs through the organization.

Chief executives are important to organizations because they set the tone for the entire organization. Senior level managers are important because they provide resources, support planning, and help to establish the vision and mission of the organization. Middle managers are also critical to the success of any organization. It is the middle

managers who must interpret the organization to the workers, and conversely the workers' views to senior level managers. They are a key level in encouraging communication within the organization. Middle managers are involved in decision-making and the implementation of decisions, frequently made by higher level managers, without their involvement; planning, at times without the benefit of important information, and the determination of strategy and tactics.

Middle managers then must be effective leaders if organizational goals and objectives are to be achieved. Their effectiveness may be measured in different ways, depending upon the nature of the organization. But, in general, their effectiveness is measured by the degree to which the organizational objectives of their area of responsibility are achieved. Middle managers must overcome many barriers if they are to be effective. These barriers include: need for support from their supervisor and their supervisees, need to motivate their supervisees, workload, financial constraints, communications problems, and other related organizational barriers, including collective bargaining agreements.

The success, then, of higher education institutions-colleges and universities-like other organizations is measured by their ability to achieve their goals. Like other organizations, higher education institutions must be able to respond quickly and effectively to changing conditions and expectations both internally and externally, in order to achieve their goals and to remain viable. One of the keys to the ability of higher education institutions to respond, as in other organizations, is the effectiveness of middle managers including: deans, division chairpersons, department chairpersons, associate deans, assistant

deans, directors, and coordinators. Decisions implemented by these middle managers are, in most instances, of a higher level than those implemented by first line supervisors who provide direct supervision and are not involved in matters of policy formulation. The most important of these middle managers are the division and/or department chairpersons who, because of the decentralized nature of decision-making and the diffusion of power in colleges and universities, are critical to the success of the colleges and universities.

As in other types of organizations, middle managers in higher education institutions encounter many barriers to their effectiveness. It has been suggested that the most significant problem facing these middle managers has been the failure of their superiors to recognize the importance of middle managers in their organizations. Consequently they have failed to keep them informed, to involve them in decision-making, and, in general, they have failed to empower them as managers. In effect, this failure to empower middle managers has resulted in an increase in centralized decision-making in organizations, which, by their very nature, are not highly centralized or goal-oriented. It has been suggested that this increased centralization has often been excessive, unwarranted, unwise, and dysfunctional to the goals, priorities, and viability of their institutions. Excessive centralization has led not only to the loss of power and autonomy for middle management, but also far too frequently to slower and poorer decisions, faulty communications, and much information clogging and distortion.

The Nature of the Problem

There is a need to identify changes that need to occur in order to increase the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education. For those in critical managerial positions with responsibility to supervise the translation of institutional goals and policies into academic practice. It is their responsibility to provide the leadership needed to move their institutions toward goal achievement within the changing and highly charged environment of higher education.

Higher education expanded rapidly throughout the 60's and into the 70's. The Carnegie commission on Higher Education (1973), concluded that:

> This expansion has moved higher education in the United States from a system designed for a relatively small and more-or-less socially elite group to one providing broad access; and it is moving toward universal access. There are not only many more students, but the students are also more diverse in their interests and in their levels of academic preparation and competence. (p. 8)

By the 1980's campuses had continued to become larger and more complex; there were more administrators and more levels of decision-making within and above campuses as the institutions sought to increase management controls and, in public systems particularly, systems were expanded, and increased central management controls were implemented. Decisions often took more time and were further removed from the operating levels, which, in most instances, was the middle management level.

The 1970's and into the 1980's was a period characterized by diminishing financial resources and a declining pool of traditional students. The sustained period of high rates of inflation which were a result of the Vietnam War and the oil crisis, drove up the cost of operating institutions. As a consequence, finance assumed a new prominence on campuses as colleges struggled to find ways to achieve their goals in more cost effective ways and, in many instances, simply struggled to survive. The diminished pool of traditional students required colleges to recruit more aggressively the traditional students as well as to seek to attract nontraditional students including: women in male-dominated fields, minorities, handicapped students, older students, non-English speaking students, as well as other such groups.

Administrators became more active as they needed to respond to the changed and changing financial and demographic conditions as well as to what was perceived as an unwillingness on the part of the faculty to provide leadership during a period of declining resources. Astin (1980) observed that:

> In good or ill, faculty authority is usually a conservative force directed toward maintaining the status quo in programs, academic policies, and other such matters. Administrators on the other hand, tend to become increasingly mission-oriented. Their focus shifts from the effect decisions will have on particular individuals to the effect that will be felt by entire constituencies over the long run. (p. 141)

The demographic, social, financial, and economic trends also had a profound affect on the very core of institutions of higher education: the curricula. Curricula, the courses taught and the programs offered, affected much of the lives of institutions. They influenced how finan-

cial and human resources were allocated, the type and expectations of students who attended, faculty who were hired to teach, and administrators who formulated and implemented policies.

By the 1960's and accelerating in the 1970's and 1980's higher education prepared an increased number of students, even though the traditional college population of recently graduated high school students had diminished in real numbers and as a percentage of each college's student body. These students, especially at the community colleges, were prepared in increasingly larger numbers for careers in business, health, human services, engineering and other career areas. Public institutions-community colleges, state colleges, and universities-were especially under pressure from state legislatures, governors, and private industry to play a larger role in helping to improve the economic environment of their respective states. They were called upon to prepare people, especially the nontraditional students, to work in existing businesses as well as to train and retrain people to meet future needs, as opposed to the earlier emphasis on liberal arts and more general education.

Trained manpower was, and is, a key ingredient in justifying the expansion of higher education and the financial commitments to upgrade personnel and facilities. The number of associate degrees conferred in the early to mid 1970's rose by about two thirds from the 1960's. Most of that increase and focus upon career programs occurred at the community-college level. At a time when many institutions of higher education were closing or reducing their size, community colleges reflected mostly increased budgets and expansions of their career or occupa-

tional preparation programs. Odiorne (1984) pointed out that, "By 1978 public budgets for community colleges were still rising. A host of studies drew upon the idea of human capital to demonstrate statistically that investment in community colleges by state and local governments had a high yield" (p. 21). Odiorne described the human capital theory as essentially the view that, "Employees can be considered as assets, value can be placed on them and they can be managed much as a portfolio of stocks is managed to maintain or increase their value to the organization" (p. ix). Using these arguments and the clear need for people prepared to work in industries which required cognitive skills which these people did not have, community colleges, as well as four-year colleges and universities, sought to maintain or increase their budgets, and to increase the number of administrators at each institution. The increase in administrators, it was argued, was justified by the need for higher levels of quality control and accountability.

There was a movement away from traditional liberal arts education and extensive programs for teacher education which also declined both in size and number due to the diminution of the number of elementary and high school students and the consequent diminishment of career opportunities. This was a traumatic experience for many colleges. The core of liberal arts faculty, English, history, behavioral sciences, mathematics, science and other related disciplines, was deeply concerned as their institutions became more career oriented. Their jobs were threatened. The student body changed. Each faculty member's power, in relation to of that of the administration and the total faculty, diminished.

As a consequence, in most instances it was these faculty members who led the movement toward unionization in higher education as a means of gaining some control over policy-making as well as to have some influence on the direction of change at their institutions. Campus governance, then, was influenced by the unionization of the faculty, and in some instances administrators. Thus, contractual requirements replaced collegial understandings and in some instances, administration's unilateral authority. Although this activity occurred at all levels and in all sectors of higher education, the most highly unionized institutions were the community colleges.

All of these changes combined to place great pressure on leaders at all levels and in all sectors of higher education. This was especially true for middle managers because of their crucial responsibilities in providing the leadership required to meet institutional objectives. It was the middle managers who were expected to: develop new curricula, recruit or develop strategies for recruiting both students and faculty, implement budgets, evaluate and make other key personnel recommendations for faculty, develop and implement grants, and maintain overall quality control. Institutions expected middle managers to be effective, and to produce. Without additional funds and additional students, an institution's only hope for increased productivity, higher levels of quality, and better management was to improve the performance of the people at the college and to make every position and new appointment count. In addition, as institutions became more complex, more decisions were made by middle managers. The middle management level, especially at the division and department levels, was where most colleges and universities

conducted most of their activities, therefore decisions made at that level were difficult to undo at other levels.

Several barriers to the effectiveness of middle managers have been identified. For many middle managers, the lack of a clear role definition was a barrier to effectiveness. This barrier was manifested in several ways: unclear or nonexistent statements of responsibilities, an imbalance between authority and responsibility, and for some, an ambiguity between faculty and managerial roles. Although collective bargaining resolved the ambiguity of the role somewhat, there remained the inherent problem of who was to represent the views of the faculty to the administration.

Inadequate leadership skills were a second barrier to the effectiveness of many middle managers. In most instances, especially at the department and division levels, the selection or election of a middle manager was based upon academic considerations: degrees, publications, research or, in some instances, limited application. This was because there frequently were no financial incentives for those who sought to develop a reputation in their disciplines or who sought a promotion in rank. Very few institutions provided staff development and/or orientation opportunities for new middle managers to develop or to improve their leadership skills. This was unfortunate because a solid base in leadership skills early in a middle manager's career was found to pay lasting dividends.

Although leadership and leadership skills were critical for organizational effectiveness, middle managers were frequently faced with an important barrier to their effectiveness, i.e., inadequate support from

their supervisors. This took the form of either neglect by senior level administrators who did not fully recognize the importance of the middle manager's position and/or by that administrator's failure to delegate authority. This behavior by senior level administrators clearly undermined the effectiveness of the middle managers.

Leadership inherently required followers. It was critical, then, for middle managers to gain the support of their followers or supervisees in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives. Effective motivation of followers is important for any leader, but it is especially important in higher education which is labor-intensive and thus dependent upon the energy, creativity, and willingness of its professional employees to achieve organizational objectives.

Financial constraints also were barriers to the effectiveness of middle managers. These constraints took several forms, including: inadequate budget to support the faculty, insufficient staffing level, limited flexibility/control of the use of funds, and delays in the availability of funds.

Another barrier to the effectiveness of middle managers at unionized institutions was collective bargaining. The onset of collective bargaining and the presence of both the union and a union contract had the effect of limiting the authority of middle managers. The contract was, in effect, a strong statement of policies and procedures which was generally formulated and agreed upon without any participation by middle managers. This often created a feeling of managerial powerlessness. Although their formal powers may have remained the same, frequently it

was viewed by middle managers as a deterioration of their authority. It generally resulted in a reallocation of the manager's time and energy.

When combined with the varied goals of institutions of higher education, all of these responsibilities were barriers to the effectiveness of middle managers. The primary concern was whether middle managers had the time to effectively carry out all of their responsibilities. The breadth of responsibilities became a barrier when combined with the need to motivate one's followers and to gain the support of one's supervisor. Supervisors and supervisees frequently had different priorities and expectations of the middle managers. The supervisors frequently expected the middle managers to provide the leadership necessary to motivate their supervisees to do something which they would not otherwise do.

Finally, a frustration for all middle managers was the general level of administrative inefficiency. This inefficiency, in the form of unclear policies and procedures, unnecessary paperwork, frequent and often unnecessary unproductive meetings, and the lack of decisionmaking wasted time and served as a barrier to effectiveness.

Organizations exist to achieve goals and seek to maximize the use of resources. Middle managers play an important role in this effort. They are expected to implement policies, motivate employees, plan and, at times, determine strategies and tactics for the achievement of objectives. Middle managers are expected to be effective in working with and through people. Therefore, they must be able to provide leadership for the people who work for them and to work well with their own supervisors in order to get the necessary support. Middle managers in all organi-

zations encounter numerous barriers to their effectiveness. Those working in higher education, especially at the critical level of department or division chairperson, are confronted with some problems unique to higher education, including the high level of decentralized authority and the lack of consensual support for institutional objectives, especially when they involve change. The changes in the environment facing higher education institutions during the 1970's and 1980's and the changes in administrative organization have made it particularly important to identify changes which need to occur in order to increase the effectiveness of these middle managers.

Need for the Study

The topic of leadership effectiveness has been written about extensively. Leadership, management, administration and effectiveness as well as other related concepts have been examined very carefully. There exists a large body of literature which describes how to measure leadership effectiveness and how to improve upon the weaknesses of leaders, including middle managers.

There is also a substantial body of literature which describes many of the problems which currently face higher education and leaders of higher education, as well as literature suggesting how these situations might be improved. The literature seems to indicate that although there are many points of commonality throughout higher education, the effectiveness of individual managers or groups of middle managers cannot be increased nor the barriers removed unless the specific factors which

shape their situations can be identified and suggestions can be made for addressing their particular situations. Therefore, if individual middle managers or groups of middle managers are to increase their effectiveness, studies are needed to identify the specific factors influencing their effectiveness and implications for change. This is one such study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study has been to identify salient factors influencing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education and to develop recommendations that will reinforce conditions contributing to effectiveness and alter conditions found to be inhibiting effectiveness.

Research Questions

The study was designed to identify barriers to the effectiveness of a clearly defined group of middle managers. The goal was to develop recommendations for changes which needed to occur in order to increase this group's effectiveness. In order to accomplish that purpose the following questions were addressed:

1. What are the most important responsibilities of middle managers?
2. What criteria do middle managers use to measure their effectiveness?

3. What are the major barriers to their effectiveness?
4. Do middle managers want to increase their effectiveness?
5. Can their effectiveness be increased?
6. What changes need to occur in order to increase their effectiveness?

The Significance of the Study

The results of this study will be of interest to persons who are interested in increasing the effectiveness of middle managers. The conclusions and recommendations will focus upon middle managers and their needs as leaders. The results of the study will provide data which can be used to formulate specific recommendations and/or a means of assessing individual situations encountered by middle managers. The findings will determine what, if any, changes need to occur, in order for the middle managers to increase their effectiveness.

Basic Assumptions

During the design of the study some basic assumptions were made:

1. That a high degree of effectiveness is expected of middle managers.
2. That middle managers formally and/or informally evaluate their own effectiveness on an on-going basis.
3. That increased effectiveness is a desirable goal for middle managers.

4. That the effectiveness of a middle manager can be increased if barriers to their effectiveness are identified and appropriate actions are taken and/or attitudes changed.
5. That middle managers and others from whom opinions are sought will share them honestly.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

> The achievement of organizational objectives through leadership is management. (Blanchard and Hersey, 1982, p.3)

This chapter is a review of the literature pertinent to the study of middle management effectiveness in higher education. Because the focus of the study was upon increasing middle management effectiveness, and because management involves leadership, this review has addressed both the general areas of management and leadership, in addition to a more focused review of management and leadership in higher education.

This chapter addresses the concepts of management, and leadership from various perspectives. It also considers middle managers and reviews literature addressing leadership in higher education.

Management

Review of the literature indicated that there were almost as many definitions of management as there were writers in the field. A common thread that appeared in these definitions was the managers' concern for accomplishing organizational goals or objectives. Blanchard and Hersey's definition of management appeared to capture the essence of the others. Management, as defined, applied to all organizations, be they businesses, educational institutions, hospitals, political organizations or even families. In effect, everyone could be considered to be a manager in at least certain aspects of one's life.

Review of the literature also revealed that most authors considered the principal managerial functions to be planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling. These functions were considered to be relevant regardless of the type of organization or the level of management. Additionally, the achievement of the goals of the organization was considered to be the manager's primary responsibility.

Planning and organizing were thought to be the initial steps that needed to be taken in order to set goals and organize resources. Many authors considered the ability to motivate to be a critical management skill. Numerous studies had found that although employees could retain their jobs by working at only 20 to 30 percent of their ability, that if highly motivated, they would work at 80 to 90 percent of their ability. This difference of up to 60 percent could make the difference between success and failure for organizations or, at least, substantially increase their level of success. Important as many authors considered motivation to be, they consistently emphasized that the four basic management functions were interrelated and interdependent and therefore, at any one time, one or more could be of primary importance.

The literature suggested that there were three basic areas of skill necessary to carry out the principal managerial functions. These areas included technical, human, and conceptual skills. In effect, managers had to be able to perform the tasks which they were managing, work with and through people, and understand the complexities of the overall organization in order to act according to the goals the total organization, rather than only on the basis of the objectives and needs of their own areas. Additionally, the lower the level of management, the

more technical knowledge and skill was required to be effective. Conversely, at higher levels of management less technical knowledge and skill was required, but more conceptual skill was essential Human skill was the key, as that was the common denominator at both levels. Lower level managers required less conceptual skill and upper level managers required less technical skill, but both required interpersonal or human skills if they were going to effectively motivate people and achieve the goals of the organization.

Management was considered to be a process which occurred within the context of an organization. It required that managers have certain skills including those skills essential to motivate workers toward the achievement of organizational goals.

Discussion of management therefore included consideration of the behavior of managers and workers. Given the definition of management cited earlier, including within it the concept of leadership, and, given the importance of motivation in the management process, it was essential to separate out the role of leadership in the process. Blanchard and Hersey (1982) suggested that:

> Management and leadership are often thought of as one and the same thing. We feel, however, that there is an important distinction between the two concepts.
>
> In essence, leadership is a broader concept than management. The key difference . . . lies in the word organization [italics in original]. Leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behavior [italics in original] of an individual or group, regardless of the reason. (p.3)

Leadership

> Leadership is successful influence by the leader that results in goal attainment by influenced followers. (Bass, 1981, p. 10)

Bass' description of leadership effectively summarized the various descriptions and definitions found in the literature addressing leadership. Although the literature reviewed by the researcher focused primarily upon that which was written after 1960, the study of leadership has a long history during which there have been alternative approaches to the study, description and definition of leadership as part of the study of organizations. Much of the literature reflected earlier theories, and in fact, was based upon principles developed by earlier authors.

Beginning in the early 1900's, authors discussed what was described as scientific management, which considered the increased technological nature of society and advocated improvement of the techniques or methods of workers as the way to increase productivity (the achievement of organizational goals). The scientific management movement argued that an organization needed to be rationally planned and executed in order to increase administrative effectiveness and consequently to increase production. The effect was that workers needed to adjust to management and not the management to the workers. The main function of the leader was to establish and enforce performance criteria to meet organizational goals. The leader's main focus was on the needs of the organization and not on the needs of the workers.

Beginning in the 1920's and into the 1930's another approach to management began to be developed. It was based in part on scientific management concepts, but it diverged at critical points. This approach contended that the real centers of power were the interpersonal relationships that developed within an organization. Because its proponents argued that it was essential to consider human affairs in addition to developing the best technological methods if productivity was to be improved, this new approach was described as the human relations movement.

As such, the leader's responsibility was to support and assist his/her followers to grow and develop personally, while achieving organizational goals. The focus had been shifted by this school of thought from a primary focus upon the needs of the organization, to the needs of the individual. Productivity still remained the ultimate goal. It appears that the means and not the end, were different.

These two approaches or schools of thought appeared to provide the theoretical frameworks and foundations for several theories of leadership. These two schools recognized the two fundamental concerns of management: achievement of tasks and concern for the needs of people. Several writers attempted to find the common ground between the two schools, they incorporated the concerns for both task achievement and consideration for relationships in the theories which they developed.

As viewed by others, one of the key issues they considered was leadership style i.e., the behavior which a person used when attempting to influence the activities of others. Leadership style could vary from an authoritarian style in which the leader told his/her followers what

to do and how to do it, to a more democratic style in which the leader involved his/her followers in the planning and execution of the task. The focus in considering leadership style remained on influencing someone to do something or behave in a certain way. These writers argued that leadership needed to be effective if the goals were to be achieved. They also argued that, in effect, the polarity of the task (scientific management) and relationship (human relations) theories was not acceptable. It was important, they argued, to consider the situation within which the leadership occurred.

Situational Leadership

> Leadership is a dynamic process varying from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers, and situations. (Blanchard and Hersey, 1982, p. 83)

Although the descriptions and definitions of leadership varied, there was agreement in the literature that leadership style, to be most effective, needed to be appropriate to the situation. The literature suggested that the more that leader behavior was adapted to meet particular situations and the needs of their followers, the more effective the followers would be in reaching their personal goals. Therefore, the leader would be more effective in achieving organizational goals through his/her followers. Because it allowed individuals to use the organization to fulfill their needs and simultaneously the organization could use the individuals to achieve its goals the followers' achievement of their goals was considered to be significant. Bakke described this as the fusion process (Agyris, 1957, p. 211). The literature indicated

that there was not a universal behavior that was effective, but rather the appropriateness of the behavior was dependent upon the situation in which it was used. Therefore, there was no behavior which was considered to be the "correct" or "appropriate" leadership behavior, but rather the correct behavior for the situation. An authoritarian leadership style with very close supervision was as appropriate as a democratic style involving less direct supervision and more participation. The key, they argued, was the needs of the situation.

The arguments for the situational approach to leadership which uses an adaptive leadership style, helped to explain why such differing styles of leadership were effective. They also argued against the existence of a universally effective leadership style or leader traits. Additionally, the literature also described the role of the follower, the person who was led, as crucial to leadership. The followers could choose to involve themselves in seeking the goals of the organization or not. Likewise, they could determine the degree to which they would use their energy to achieve the organization's goals. Bass suggested, as was noted previously, that the goal of leadership was to maximize the involvement of the followers in the achievement of the organization's goals. But to do so, and to provide effective leadership, leaders needed to be aware of the needs of their followers

Leadership Effectiveness

Blanchard and Hersey (1982) built upon the adaptive leadership concept and included consideration for what they described as effec-

tiveness. They theorized that when a style was appropriate for a situation it was effective, and when it was inappropriate to a situation it was ineffective. This effectiveness was determined by considering the needs of the leader, the follower and the situation. When the needs of the follower were met by the activity required to meet organizational goals, the leadership was perceived to be effective. In effect the energy and ability of the follower or worker would be expended at a higher level thus they would be more productive. Although in individual situations this could also occur as a result of a negative leadership style which did not provide for this merger (i.e., coercion, embarrassment, etc.) effectiveness in the long term would not be achieved. This is because the individual would not continue to strive for the goal without the external stimulus or the individual would ultimately react against the negative stimulus as his/her long term needs were not being achieved.

The literature suggested then that in considering the effectiveness of a leader one must also focus upon the motivation and needs of the followers. Their personal needs required satisfaction if they were to make a substantial contribution to the achievement of organizational goals. The desire to realize one's full potential was described by Maslow as self-actualization. One's need and desire to become more and more of what he/she was capable of becoming, was a fundamental premise which was consistently addressed in literature. Ogilvie and Raimes (1971) noted that:

> Both Argyris and McGregor emphasize the importance of incorporating an understanding of the role of motivational factors in governing

> human behavior within the organization. Argyris speaks of psychological growth as the highest human need. This concept is similar to McGregor's highest need which is the need for self-fulfillment or realizing one's full potential. (p. 61)

Psychologist Ernest Becker suggested that:

> Man is driven by an essential 'dualism'; he needs both to be a part of something and to stick it out. He needs at one and the same time to be a conforming member of a winning team and to be a star in his own right. (Peters, T. and Waterman, R. Jr., 1982, p. xxii)

Odiorne (1984) suggested that, "Every employee can be a winner; this happy state results when employees are given feelings of purpose and responsibility. Management attitudes rather than specific programs create a pleasant climate." (p. 88).

The literature also suggested then that a prime factor in motivation was the self-perception of people that they were doing well. People, it was suggested, listened and tuned in when they felt that they were doing well and tuned out when they felt that they were failing. It was very clear in the literature that motivation was not simply influencing of people to accomplish goals which were compatible with their own objectives. Leadership also meant influencing them to either act to achieve goals which were incompatible with their objectives, or to create an environment in which they would bring their personal objectives into congruence with organizational goals. Scott asserted that, "The essence of motivation is stimulating people to action toward the accomplishment of objectives which may or may not be compatible with their own objectives" (p. 44). One of the means of motivating people to bring their objectives into congruence with those of the organization was by meeting their needs. Drucker (1967) suggested that:

> His [the follower's] psychological needs and personal values need to be satisfied in and through his work and position in the organization. Yet he is an employee under orders. He must subordinate himself to organizational goals and objectives. (p. 173).

One way in which this could be accomplished was through the leader's exercise of power. The power of the leader then was also considered a factor to be considered when measuring the effectiveness of a leader.

Leader Power

> The attitudes and directions of the supervisors affect subordinates roughly in proportion to the backing the supervisor is able to get from his own bosses, even though his authority is limited. (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974, p. 61).

The literature indicated that power was derived from the superiors and the followers of the leader. In developing this concept it was suggested that leaders exercised power that either came from the position which they held in the organization (position power); or from their followers (personal power). Blanchard and Hersey (1982) in discussing position power asserted that, "It is not a matter of the office [position] having power, but the extent to which those to whom managers report are willing to delegate authority and responsibility down to them. Position power tends to flow down" (p. 107). Levinson (1975) contended that:

> In fact, both common sense and research indicate that the single most significant influence outside himself on how a manager does his job is his superior. If that is the case, then the key factor in task accomplishment and managerial growth is the relationship between the manager and his superior. (p. 65).

Because of the critical nature of this relationship, it was important for leaders to take the initiative to develop a strong and mutually supportive relationship with their superiors in order to maximize their position power. Gabarro and Kotter (1982) suggested that:

> Good managers recognize that a relationship with a boss involves mutual dependence and that, if it is not managed well, they can not be effective in their job. The boss-subordinate relationship is not like the one between a parent and a child, in that the burden for managing the relationship should not and can not fall entirely on the boss. Bosses are only human; their wisdom and maturity are not always greater than their subordinates. Effective managers see managing the relationship with the boss as part of their job. As a result, they take time and energy to develop a relationship that is consonant with both persons' styles and assets that meets the most critical needs of each. (p. 92).

It was suggested that the two most important factors affecting the ability of leaders to manage their superiors were the style and expectations of both of them. Expectations were described as the appropriate behavior for one's role/position, or one's perception of the roles of others within the organization. If the leaders' styles were such that their superiors did not develop confidence and trust in them, the leaders' power would be limited. It was essential that leaders meet the critical needs of their superiors in terms of style and expectations. If expectations were to be compatible, it was important to share common goals and objectives. Sharing a common vision was needed. The sharing of this common vision enhanced the personal power of the leaders and provided them with more of an opportunity to exercise personal power, thus increased their likelihood of being effective.

Position power was viewed as important to the leader's effectiveness, not only because they would have the power necessary to achieve their objectives, but also because the power was needed, in part, to gain and hold the support of their followers through their personal power. Without position power they were less likely to be able to help their followers to achieve their objectives. The power of leaders, or their ability to influence the behavior of their followers, was considered to be essential to their effectiveness. This power, was also perceived as a function of their relationship with their superiors and their followers. This interdependence was alluded to by Zander (1983) who suggested that:

> One way in which effective leaders bridge the gap between the individual and the organization's goals is by creating a loyalty to themselves among their followers by being an influential spokesperson for followers with higher management. These leaders have no difficulty in communicating organizational goals to followers and these people do not find it difficult to associate the acceptance of these goals with accomplishments of their own need for satisfaction. (p. 143)

It was suggested that position power was influenced by personal power. Because the leaders were better able to meet the needs of their superiors if the leaders had the support of their followers they were therefore more likely to be able to achieve organizational objectives which were shared by the leaders and their supervisors. Leaders, then, needed personal power in order to gain and retain position power in order to be effective as leaders. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) noted that, "From a theoretical, as well as an intuitive point of view, the interpersonal relationship between the leader and his group members is

likely to be the single variable which determines his power and influence" (p. 64).

The power of the leaders was a factor that was considered in measuring their effectiveness. A leader's power was derived from his/her position, which in turn was derived from his/her superiors. The superiors in turn determined how much power they would delegate and when they would do so. The literature suggested that effective leaders needed to, in effect, "manage their bosses" in order to maximize their position power. It was suggested, too, that there was an interdependence between position power and personal power which was derived from followers. Personal power was essential to motivate followers to achieve organizational objectives and in part was a by-product of position power as well as the ability of the leaders to motivate their followers.

In sum, leadership effectiveness, was measured by the ability of leaders to influence their followers to achieve objectives. This required them to adapt their behavior [leadership style] to the needs of the situation and also to consider the needs of their followers. If the followers believed that they were achieving something of value to them, they would be highly motivated. The responsibility of the leader was to provide an environment in which the goals of the leader and of the followers were congruent. Additionally leaders needed to gain the support of their superiors if they were to have the power to provide effective leadership. Effective leadership, required consideration of the needs of leaders and followers as well as situations and environments, described by some as the character of the organization.

Ideology and Organizational Character

> Everyone is motivated by opportunities for self-expression. People like to be given responsibility. Most people have no difficulty reconciling their own needs with organizational goals as long as there is a chance that those needs will be fulfilled. (Hegarty, 1980, p. 13)

The literature indicated that leadership effectiveness was influenced by leaders, followers, and individual situations. It was also influenced by the organization, and more particularly by the environment or character of the organization. It was suggested that the character of an organization was rooted in its ideological orientation. Harrison (1972) defined organizational ideologies as, "The systems of thought that are the central determinents of the character of organizations" (p. 119). He said that the functions of ideology included:

- Specifies goals and values toward which the organization should be directed and by which success and worth are measured.
- Prescribes the appropriate relationships between individuals and the organization.
- Indicates how behavior should be controlled in the organization and what kinds of control are legitimate and illegitimate.
- Depicts which qualities and characteristics of organization members should be valued or vilified, as well as how to reward and punish.
- Shows how members should treat each other. Establishes appropriate ways to deal with the external environment. (p. 120)

The literature stated that an organization with an ideology and a character which encouraged and valued the expectations of people, and was sensitive to the need for congruence between individual and organi-

zational goals provided the leadership needed to achieve organizational goals effectively. The literature also suggested that the leaders of organizations needed to be sensitive to their behavior in sending signals and in providing direction to others in the organization. As leaders they needed to create an environment in which people were motivated to achieve organizational objectives. Lahti (1973) wrote, "Effective leadership builds organizations in which constituents are led to perform for the organization at the highest possible level of their potential." (p. 15).

Peters and Waterman (1982) concluded that the ideology of such organizations would embrace the tenets of "theory y":

1. That the expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest-the typical human does not inherently dislike work;

2. External control and threat of punishment are not the company's ends;

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement-the most important of such rewards is the satisfaction of ego and can be the direct product of effort directed toward the organization's purposes;

4. The average human being learns under the right conditions not only to accept, but to seek responsibility;

5. And, the capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed in the population. (p. 95)

As noted earlier leadership effectiveness was influenced by leaders, followers, individual situations, and the environment or character of an organization. The latter was, in turn, rooted in its ideology. The literature suggested that the responsibility of leaders,

and the effectiveness of their leadership, was dependent upon the integration of individual and organizational goals. Van Maanen (1978) asserted, "The socialization process is important in affecting the attitudes and behavior, and it would seem effectiveness, of employees" (p. 35). An effective socialization process, flowing from the organization's ideology, was considered therefore to be important for organizational leadership and effectiveness.

Organizational Socialization

> When organizational goals are shared by all, that is a true "integration" of goals. (Blanchard and Hersey, 1982, p. 119)

The literature supported the integration of individual and organization objectives as the means of maximizing effectiveness at all levels. The socialization process was perceived to be a responsibility of management, with the primary responsibility assigned to executives. It was postulated that it was the role of the executive that was critical in setting the tone and creating the character of an organization. Allen (1979) suggested that:

> He must secure commitment and actively manage the informal organization. The essential functions of the chief executive are first, to provide the system of communication; second, to promote the securing of essential efforts; and third, to formulate and define purpose. Organizational values are defined more by what executives do than say. (p. 77)

Peters (1978) noted, "Consciously or unconsciously, the senior executive is constantly acting out the vision and goals he is trying to realize in an organization that is typically far too vast and complex for him to

control directly" (p. 8). Lahti (1973) asserted that, "It is the responsibility of effective management to build organizations in which constituents are led to perform for the organization at the highest level of their potential" (p. 15). Several approaches to the integration of individual and organizational goals were suggested. They included: management-by-objectives (MBO), theory z, quality control circles, and quality of worklife/workplace democracy. Each is described in the following pages.

Management-by-objectives (MBO). Management-by-objectives was defined as a process whereby the superior and the subordinate managers of an enterprise jointly identified its common goals, defined each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of them, and used these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing its members' contributions. Some organizations adopted MBO as a basic management philosophy and followed the principles wherever they led. In some organizations MBO led to changes in job assignments, reporting relationships, and the way in which decisions were made. They also led, in some instances, to the involvement of people in the decision-making process, as well as to changes in the availability of information throughout the structure, and to changes in the spirit of employee groups at all levels.

This approach proved to be exceedingly difficult, time-consuming, frustrating and yet valuable. The firms that followed this approach were the ones that claimed to see results in improved performance by individuals, departments, divisions, and the total corporation. Humble (1973) suggested that, "At its best, management-by-objectives is a

system that integrates the company's goals of profit and growth with the manager's needs to contribute and develop himself personally" (p. 4).

MBO, then, could be very effective if time and commitment were present on the part of the leader and if the follower was motivated and competent enough to achieve the objectives. The leaders were expected to contribute to the adequacy of their own performance and that of the followers by: (1) clarifying what was expected of their followers; explaining how to meet such expectations; (2) spelling out criteria for the evaluation of effective performance: (3) providing feedback as to whether the individual or work group was meeting the objectives; and (4) allocating rewards contingent on meeting objectives.

MBO appeared to be both a planning and a control system in addition to being a powerful agent of behavioral change and organizational development. Because it clearly required the congruence of goals it appeared too that it could be an excellent process for learning together, implementing organizational ideology, and increasing organizational effectiveness of various individuals involved.

Theory z. the idea that involved participating workers were more effective was the essence of theory z. William G. Ouchi (1981), the formulator of theory z, argued that:

> Involved workers are the key to increased productivity. The secret to Japanese success is not technology, but a special way of managing people-a style that focuses on a strong company philosophy, a distinct corporate culture [character]. . . . Theory z management attempts to take the best of these Japanese business techniques and adapts them to the unique corporate environment of the United States. . . . Trust is lesson one in theory z. (pp.5/6)

Ouchi also suggested that productivity, or increased effectiveness, would be the result of coordinating individual efforts in a productive manner giving employees the incentives to be more productive meant taking a cooperative, long-range view. (p. 5) But, as was noted, the key element in theory z was trust. Without trust the process would not succeed and productivity (at least in the long run) would not increase. Theory z's message to American organizations included a call (1) to distribute the power to influence decisions throughout the organization and (2) to create an environment in which intimacy and trust were fostered as a means of increasing effectiveness and reducing frustration and conflict.

Quality control circles. Quality control circles were another approach to integration and socialization. Like theory z, they were based on the principle that workers had to be responsible for their own work. Ouchi (1981) emphasized:

> This approach [quality control circles] builds on potential. It is doubtful whether the mechanism known as meritocracy, a system that rates people based upon their current performance and already acquired ability can draw out their hidden ability. It does not provide the same opportunity for people to think and to use their wisdom. (p. 267)

Holt and wagner (1983) in discussing the application of quality control circles to departments in higher education, explained that:

> The voluntary group in a department has a shared responsibility for the operation and effectiveness of the unit. Members are trained in problem-solving techniques borrowed from group dynamics. . . . If the members of a circle believe that they are being manipulated or that the circle program is only in management's interest, the process will fail. (p.11)

Holt and Wagner concluded that the application of the technique of quality control circles in the United States would not solve everything, but that it would have the tremendous benefit of creating an environment for change and for making people more comfortable with change.

Workplace democracy. Finally, a more eclectic approach to integration has been titled quality of worklife or workplace democracy. Zwerdling (1979) wrote that, "The goal of this approach is to institute a process of democratic decision-making and evaluation, rather than any specific changes in tasks" (p. 51). The advocates of this approach asserted that the social qualities of the workplace affected the work process as much as the technology. They suggested that managers needed to "harmonize" the workplace by giving the workers greater autonomy and involvement in production. If that were done, workers would be more satisfied and more effective.

The issue of trust, or more accurately the lack of it, combined with the reality of vested interests in the status quo, appeared to be one source of difficulty in implementing quality of worklife/workplace democracy programs. Comments by labor leaders made this point very directly. Rodman of the International Association of Machinists (IAM) said it bluntly, "If we get into bed with management, there's going to be two people screwing the worker instead of one" (Zwerdling, 1979, p. 153). In a similar vein, Winpisinger, also of the IAM, stated, "They are a ruse to increase the productivity of workers" (p. 153). Although the literature indicated that the modified versions, with union involvement, were being experimented with and implemented, many union leaders apparently viewed these efforts as union-busting.

Summary

The process of leadership involves leaders, followers, individual situations, the environment or character of an organization, and the integration of individual and organizational goals. The most effective organizations, those with high productivity over a long period, successfully integrated individual and organizational goals and created an environment in which individuals were encouraged to work to their maximum potential. The explanation for why some organizations were more effective than others was best summarized by Drucker (1967): "Organizations are not more effective because they have better people. They have better people because they motivate to self-development through their standards, through their habits, through their climate" (p. 170). The process of integration of individual and organizational goals required an effective socialization process, which could be accomplished through a variety of approaches. Inherent in all of the approaches was the need for effective leadership at all levels of the organization, but especially from those managers who worked most directly with the workers and who played an important role in the socialization process. Those managers were generally described as middle managers.

Middle Management

> The term middle management [underlining in the original] applies primarily to what people do in their jobs rather than their titles, which can be deceiving. (Richman and Farmer, 1977, p. 244)

Review of the literature indicated that middle managers were generally expected to implement higher level decisions. Implementation of these decisions could require decision-making, planning, and determination of strategy and tactics. Although they frequently had not had any involvement in the decisions made at the higher levels, they were expected to effectively implement these decisions with and through their own subordinates. Yet these subordinates had different expectations of their supervisor, the middle managers, which influenced the subordinates' attitudes toward their work and their motivation. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) suggested, "Differences in the expectations of the leader by his subordinates and his superiors are quite typical and not really too surprising" (p. 17).

The frequent differences in expectations of the middle managers' superiors and subordinates placed the middle managers in a difficult situation. On the one hand they were part of management and were expected to conform to management norms and implement management decisions. They were also expected to accomplish new things which, at times, required departure from past norms and standards. This often required middle managers to provide the leadership necessary to have their subordinates do something which they might not otherwise do. It was essential in such situations for middle managers to have effective interpersonal skills, including skills in communication, listening, and in being empathetic. Katz (1975) noted, "Internal intra-group skills [underlining in the original] are essential in lower and middle management roles" (p. 36). These interpersonal or intra-group skills were especially important for middle managers who did not have detailed

knowledge or expertise in their areas of responsibility. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) proposed:

> When a leader does not have the expertise to master the job, he can neither tell the subordinate how to do it nor supervise him to make sure that it is done right. He must rely on his subordinate or else be willing to provide something in exchange. (p. 62)

On the other hand middle managers frequently found themselves in situations such as the one that was described by Fiedler and Chemers. Because even when they had the interpersonal skills and expertise, they still needed to conform to the norms of their subordinates in order to gain acceptance and compliance in implementing decisions. This was further complicated by the common expectation of subordinates to have the middle manager or supervisor look out for workers' welfare, but leave them in peace. Initiatives which required change could be disruptive and required both the support of subordinates and some level of acceptance of the subordinates' norms and expectations.

The middle managers were in fact caught in the middle, and needed to somehow satisfy the needs and expectations of both groups. Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1960) suggested that:

> Further, regardless of the leader's intended purpose, a given act of a leader might be seen as effective when viewed by his superior in terms of organizational goals, and at the same time be seen as ineffective when viewed by his subordinates in terms of informal group goals. (p. 30)

Review of the literature indicated that a common expectation of middle managers was to want first level supervisors, when/if they did not perform that function themselves, to get maximum productivity from their employees. Whether the supervisor at the first level of manage-

ment favored the employees, or complied with the expectations of their own superior depended partly on the degree to which a supervisor's personal needs called for close interpersonal relations with their employees.

The middle manager's predicament, i.e., whether to favor the expectations of their superior or their subordinates was the result, partially of the situation, Argyris (1957) wrote:

> He is not only a marginal man; he also tends to be in the dark about certain activities which may be crucial in the effective administration of the unit. Although he is a member of the management world, the management may not keep him informed about all their activities involving him (e.g. their evaluation of him, a possible raise, and possible long-run technological changes). (p. 166)

Middle Managers and Unionization

Difficulties, real and imagined for middle management were often exacerbated by the onset of collective bargaining. Middle managers often felt that their position had deteriorated even though their formal power remained the same and their responsibilities had increased. They considered the collectively bargained contract to be a potent policy statement which, in most instances, had been formulated without their participation. The union and the contract were viewed as additional impediments to their success in doing their job.

As a result of collective bargaining, middle managers were frequently upset and felt threatened by the new and changed relationship between them and their subordinates created by the contract and the presence of the union. They frequently believed that all of the em-

ployees' loyalties were no longer to them and the organization. Rather, the middle manager and the organization were perceived to be competing for and sharing the employees' loyalty with the union officials and the union. Because as they reviewed their organization it appeared that the owners of the company or the senior managers were able to take care of themselves, and the union took care of its members, the middle managers were further upset by the changed relationship. The concern of the middle managers was for their own security. It frequently appeared to them that no one was protecting them or their interests.

These effects of the onset of collective bargaining were not limited solely to middle managers. They also affected first-line supervisors (although in some organizations middle managers were also first-line supervisors). The literature indicated that surveys measuring job satisfaction and needs of both middle managers and first-line supervisors indicated that the pattern of need satisfaction and concerns tended to be similar for both levels. A scenario described by Argyris illustrated a frequent impact of unionization on both of these levels of management. Argyris (1957) suggested:

> The foreman's freedom of action, his "space of free movement" is greatly restricted. Available personality research suggests that a decrease in an individual's psychological space of free movement usually:
>
> 1. Produces high internal tension.
> 2. The high tension, in turn we have already seen, leads to a primitivation of the individual's personality. The foreman, in effect, operates at a lower level of maturity.
> 3. As a result, the tension may increase as failure and frustration also increase.

4. If primitivation continues long enough, and becomes strong enough, the foreman may become aggressive and hostile.

5. If the tension continues, "being a foreman" itself becomes a negative role for the foreman. As a result the foreman may:

   a. Leave the management work and become a worker.

   b. Become a management man completely.

   c. Vacillate between the two worlds.

   d. Psychologically leave the present and dream, speak of the "good old days."

   e. Try to join a union.

   f. Place a great emphasis on material rewards to make up for his tension.

   g. Become apathetic and do just enough not to be rejected by either management or employees. (p. 171)

The literature further suggested that the restructuring of a supervisors "space of free movement" and power had led to a decrease in the degree of influence which they were able to exercise over their subordinates. This, in turn, led to a decrease in their effectiveness.

Unionization then reinforced existing limits on the effectiveness of middle managers and further exacerbated the difficulty which they encountered in meeting the expectations of their superiors and their subordinates.

Summary

Review of the literature indicated that middle managers, as the persons between senior managers and the workers, needed to meet the expectations of both groups if they were to do their jobs effectively.

They were often placed in situations in which decisions were made at higher levels which they were expected to implement with and through their subordinates in order to achieve organizational goals. To accomplish this required interpersonal skills and an ability to merge the goals of the workers with those of the organization. The onset of unionization placed an additional limit on the effectiveness of middle managers, they frequently felt threatened and questioned who would protect their interests.

Leadership in Higher Education

Recently Father Hesburgh, President of Notre Dame University, said:

> Higher education and every other enterprise moves forward when there is good leadership; otherwise it stagnates. We need people with vision, elan, geist, people who have standards and a certain toughness . . . of course you need money. But if you have money and no vision, you just squander it. (Keller, 1983, p. 126)

In discussing the status of leadership in higher education in the United States Keller (1983) argued that, "The new future-oriented academic bodies have had to discipline themselves to delegate more, to engage in new kinds of activities, to behave differently. Management . . . demands leadership and the motivation of others, using information, ideas, and well-conceived purposes" (p. 68). Keller suggested that higher education was at a critical point at which strong, competent leadership was needed to adapt to the conditions which existed in higher education in the 1980's and which he projected would continue into the future.

A review of the literature indicated that Keller (1983) reflected the opinion of many when he argued that strong and effective leadership, in combination with strategy and strategic analysis were essential ingredients for institutions of higher education to survive and be successful in an environment of financial crisis. Richman and Farmer (1977) described the situation which faced higher education beginning in the 1970's when they suggested that:

> The financial crisis and services budget squeeze confronting an increasing number of universities and colleges is a main factor in the need for much more effective management and leadership. When resources are abundant, an institution can survive and even flourish without effective management. However, when the financial crunch comes, inadequate management and ineffective leadership can perpetuate crisis and lead to very severe problems. Management and leadership become more critical with scarce resources, which leads to conflicts. Moreover, effective and creative management can often prevent or head off a serious crisis, or at least keep it to a minimum. (p. 6)

Keller (1983) argued for the development of a strategy because, "To have a strategy is to put your own intelligence, foresight and will in charge, instead of outside forces. The priorities are always there. The question is who selects them" (p. 75). The development and implementation of strategy required the vision of leaders, the follow through of managers, and the involvement and support of the faculty and staff, as an effective use of all institutional resources available was essential.

Although effective leadership was essential, the literature suggested that most educational institutions were not well prepared to deal with the crises because they lacked a strategy. Also the leaders of institutions were not prepared to make the decisions needed to

address their problems. It was argued that the problems of institutions of higher education were compounded because not only was their leadership unprepared, but the very nature of higher education institutions created inherent problems. Baldridge and others (1984) suggested that, "Most organizations are goal-oriented, they can build decision structures to reach these objectives. Colleges and universities have vague, ambiguous goals and they must build decision processes to grapple at a higher degree of uncertainty and conflict" (p. 11). These vague and ambiguous goals were matched by a decentralized decision-making process, especially at the university level.

It was also suggested that one of the major characteristics of higher education institutions that distinguished them from most other organizational forms was the conflict created by pressure in the same organization of both bureaucratic and professional priorities. Baldridge and others (1984) pointed out that:

> Sociologists have made a number of important general observations about professional employees, where ever they worked:
>
> 1. Professionals demand <u>autonomy</u> in their work. Having acquired considerable skill and expertise in their field, they demand freedom from supervision in applying them.
>
> 2. Professionals have <u>divided loyalties</u>. They have "cosmopolitan" tendencies and loyalty to their peers at the national level which may sometimes interfere with loyalty to the local organizations.
>
> 3. There are strong tensions between <u>professional values</u> and <u>bureaucratic</u> expectations in an organization. This can intensify conflict between professional employees and organizational managers.
>
> All of these characteristics undercut the traditional norms of a bureaucracy, rejecting its hierarchy, contract structure, and management procedures [underlining in the original]. (p. 13)

Etzioni (1984) asserted that:

> The conflict can be constructively managed in several ways, the most common of which is the appointment of administrators who have both professional training and management experience. Being sensitive both to administrative and professional values, such persons can help to balance goals and means and thereby contribute to the integration of the institutions' components. (p. 31)

Within that context of crisis and change in higher education, the literature suggested, as Richman and Farmer (1977) asserted:

> Direction, leadership, communication and motivation are essential to getting things done through and with people. It is the job of effective management to maintain a suitable balance between individual motivation and adequate cooperation and support, both internally and externally. But management must also provide effective leadership that achieves the organization's goals efficiently. (p. 22)

Middle Management

Review of the literature suggested that although the changes combined to place a great deal of pressure on leaders at all levels and in all sectors of higher education, it was especially true for middle managers because of their crucial responsibilities in providing the leadership required to meet institutional objectives. It was the middle managers who were expected to develop new curricula, recruit or develop strategies for recruiting both students and faculty, implement budgets, evaluate and make other key personnel recommendations, develop and implement grants, maintain overall quality control, and, if necessary, teach a limited number of courses. (Baldridge and others, 1984; Bennet, 1983; Hammons, 1984; Tucker, 1984)

Institutions expected middle managers to be effective, to produce. Without additional funds and additional students, an institution's only hope for increased productivity, higher levels of quality, and better management was to improve the performance of the people at the college and to make every position and new appointment count. In addition, as institutions became more complex, more decisions were made by middle managers. The middle management level, especially the division and department levels, were where most colleges and universities conducted most of their activities. It was particularly important for middle managers to be effective because decisions made at that level were difficult to undo at other levels.

Although leadership and leadership skills were critical for organizational effectiveness, middle managers were frequently faced with an important barrier to their effectiveness in the form of inadequate support from their supervisors. This took the form of either neglect by senior-level administrators or by a failure to delegate authority. This behavior by senior level administrators undermined the effectiveness of the middle managers. Richman and Farmer (1977) addressed this issue when they suggested that:

> If this is not done [delegation of authority], their leadership and managerial status is likely to be seriously undermined and many serious problems can result. The trend toward increased centralization is often excessive, unwarranted, unwise, and dysfunctional to the goals, priorities, and viability of the institution. Excessive centralization leads not only to the loss of power and autonomy for middle management, but also far too frequently to slower and poorer decisions, faulty communications, and much information clogging and distortion. (pp. 246/247)

Schuefler (1973) suggested that, "Decentralization, which requires delegation of authority and responsibility, provides more decision making at the lower levels, develops more competence, has more input, improves morale, produces self-motivation and increases self-control" (p. 8).

The literature also revealed that middle managers in higher education, like middle managers in other organizations, were affected by the dual and sometimes contradictory expectations of their superiors and their subordinates. Bennet (1983) observed that:

> Certainly the job does not come without stress, as the chairperson struggles to cope with the traditional ambiguity of the position, always to be looking in two directions, mediating the concerns of administration to the faculty and vice versa, while trying to maintain some identify and integrity. (pp. 2/3)

Although having some problems and facing some barriers which were unique to higher education, middle managers in higher education institutions generally had the same types of other difficulties as were described and delineated in the earlier discussion of middle management. They were perceived and described in the literature, especially at the department and division level, as being critical to the success of the institution. Lombardi (1974) suggested that, "If there are not quality people at this division chairman level the organization will not put out quality education" (p. 1). In spite of this, the literature also revealed that the effectiveness of middle managers was limited because their superiors did not provide the level of support or recognition which was necessary.

Leadership in Community Colleges

Review of the literature which addressed leadership in higher education indicated that many of the problems and issues of higher education in general also affected the community colleges. Baldridge and others (1978) noted that:

> Relative newcomers to the scene, these colleges are not buffered from the environment. They are subject to strong budget control from state and local governments. "Accountability" demands that they leave much of the decision-making in the hands of the administration and the board of trustees. (p. 144)

Lahti (1973) suggested that:

> But though they are recognized as a unique addition to post-secondary education, they are not immune to the problems facing higher education in general. They suffer from the same lack of effective management and must recognize and deal with the specific problems and needs. One of the greatest management needs is a much clearer definition of management authority and establishment of an identifiable management structure that will make the institution more accountable for its effectiveness. (p. 6)

It was significant to note, as Myran (1983) suggested, that:

> The growth era for community colleges is fading, and the vitality era is emerging. The key concern of the next decade will not be whether community colleges can survive, but whether they can continue to be vital to the students, communities, and employers they serve. (p. 19)

This is significant because the literature also suggested that motivation, as an internal drive, came more easily within a newly established, rapidly growing organization where an atmosphere of excitement and challenge existed. It was suggested that when an organization's growth reached a stage of relative stability or maturity however, motivation ceased to be self-generating and became increasingly dependent on

external forces such as the skill of supervision. The need for effective leadership at the community colleges was thus reinforced.

Collective Bargaining

Review of the literature revealed that one development which clearly had an impact upon the organization of community colleges and other institutions of higher education, and which influenced goal setting and goal achievement, was collective bargaining. Gambarino and Aussieker (1974) reported that, "While four-year institutions have dominated the discussion on faculty unionism, more two-year than four-year institutions have chosen bargaining agents, and two-year institutions have been bargaining for a longer period of time and have more experience with its effects" (p. 179).

Gambarino and Aussieker (1974) also pointed out that:

> The most fundamental change in the labor force resulted form the junior to community college transition. The emerging community colleges were increasingly staffed with full-time occupational, general, and adult education faculty, as well as, other full-time professional staff. Their [occupational education faculty] attitudes toward the mission and purpose of the community college, as well as, the administration were quite different from those of the academic and predominantly liberal arts faculty, who formerly comprised as much as 90 percent of the full-time staff. The impetus for faculty unionism came from the full-time academic liberal arts faculty. (p. 201)

Naples (1974) suggested that, "The union goal at two-year colleges is to enfranchise the faculty at the expense of the administrators who previously dominated institutional decision-making" (p. 48). It is apparent that liberal arts faculty sought unionization as a way of em-

powering themselves and to stop or at least influence the direction in which the colleges were moving.

Kemerer and Baldridge (1975) suggested that:

> It is questionable that administrative power at unionized schools is experiencing a net decline, yet it is evident that the focus of decision-making within the administrative hierarchy has changed. At single campuses, we note a power shift upward, whereas in multi-campus systems "parallel power pyramids" seem to be developing. In both public and private institutions, coordination and centralization of policy-making, particularly on economic issues has moved upward from departments, to schools, to the central administration, and ultimately to off-campus authorities. (p. 170)

It was clear that as campuses at all levels of higher education struggled with new problems and demands, including collective bargaining, the character of campus administration has changed. One change has been the expansion in administrative ranks. The growing complexity of campus management demanded an increased number of people with the time and expertise to address these changing demands. This expansion of administrative ranks and increased centralization of authority occurred in the face of a faculty which sought, especially at the community colleges through collective bargaining, to gain more authority and to share authority with the administration.

Collective bargaining, coinciding with a host of other demands, produced a different kind of campus management, as well as having several other side effects. Naples (1974) suggested that, "One of collective bargaining's most beneficial side effects is improvement, resulting from necessity, in collection, storage, retrieval, accuracy, and relevance of data concerning the institution, its policies and practices" (p. 53). He suggested, too, "A further side effect is the

establishment or improvement of existing channels of communication and exchange of data with sister institutions" (p. 53).

Kemerer and Baldridge (1975) described a not so positive side effect which impacted upon the department chairperson [middle manager]:

> The new collective bargaining contract often produces a "shirt pocket contract mentality," with faculty members acting as quasi-lawyers, checking their ever-ready contracts against possible administrative violations. This relentless and defensive faculty behavior can frustrate department chairpersons [middle managers] from imposing sanctions or making hard decisions. A reprimand or tenure denial may produce an instant confrontation with the union and possibly grievance action. (p. 186)

Summary

Higher education has undergone and is undergoing change which has been brought on, in part, by various external forces which have affected it during recent decades. The literature clearly supported and described the need for more effective leadership at all levels of higher education. The leaders of higher education needed to develop strategies and to implement organizational structures which would support more effective leadership.

Leaders of higher education had to address the nature of their institutions, including decentralization, conflicting goals, and, at many colleges, unionization. Community colleges, a growing segment of higher education, were affected by the same forces as were other institutions. If higher education institutions were to adapt to changed conditions and, in many cases, to survive they must respond to the need

for increased effectiveness at all levels of management and for leadership skills on the part of managers.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study has been to identify salient factors influencing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education and to develop recommendations that will reinforce conditions contributing to effectiveness and alter conditions found to be inhibiting effectiveness.

This chapter describes the research design, the population sampled, the instruments for data collection, collection of the data, the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data, and the delimitations of the study

Research Design

> And it is recorded that the students came unto Halcolm, the Wise, "Teach us, Master, the right methods to use when we evaluate." And he said:
>
> Issues of evaluation methodology are issues of strategy, not of morals. Purity of method is no virtue. That strategy is best which matches research methods to the evaluation questions being asked. The challenge is to decide which methods are most appropriate in a given situation. (From Halcolm's evaluation beautitudes quoted in Patton, 1980, p. 17)

Halcolm's advice was followed in developing this research strategy. The researcher developed a strategy, or plan of action, which would produce the data needed to understand the factors which influenced the effectiveness of middle managers in order to assist in making

recommendations for changes to increase their effectiveness. The researcher considered the goals of the study in deciding what to be able to say with the data produced. It was his goal to make recommendations, based upon a reasonable sampling of a particular group of middle managers, for consideration by decision-makers, including presidents and deans of academic affairs, as well as division chairpersons themselves. The recommendations, although not generalizable to all career division chairpersons in all situations, would have value for chairpersons, senior administrators, and others who have a concern about the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions in situations similar to those which were studied.

The researcher decided to trade off breadth for depth of understanding and detail because of his desire for rich data. This desire for depth and richness of data led the researcher to use the case study approach, involving qualitative methods. The purpose of this approach was to gather systematic and in-depth information about the case being studied. The case study itself consists of all of the information that the researcher has about the case, including descriptive, analytic, interpretive, and evaluative treatment of the data. The goal of using the data to make recommendations further supports the choice of the case study approach because of its utilization focus. Patton (1980) suggested that, "Qualitative methods can considerably enhance the utilization . . . because the data are perceived as personal" (p. 84).

The words of Halcolm advised the researcher to match the questions to the methods within the framework of the given situation being researched. In this study the situation included developing an under-

standing of the factors which influenced the effectiveness of a particular group of middle managers, i.e., chairpersons of career divisions at community colleges. Qualitative methods were selected because they were most appropriate to achieving the goals of the study. Qualitative research is inductive, providing depth and detail. It seeks to make sense of a situation without imposing preexisting expectations on the research setting. Qualitative designs begin with specific observations and build toward general patterns. The point of using qualitative methods is to understand the naturally occurring phenomena in their naturally occurring complexity. By entering into the worlds of the individuals, the researcher is able to describe and understand both externally observable behaviors and internal states, such as world view, opinions, values, attitudes, and the like. Paying attention to this inner perspective assumes that understanding can only be achieved by actively participating in the life of the subject and/or gaining insight by means of introspection. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) asserted that,

> This approach [qualitative methodology] . . . directs itself at settings and the individuals within those settings holistically; that is, the subject of the study, be it an organization or an individual, is not reduced to an isolated variable or to a hypothesis, but is viewed instead as part of a whole. (p. 4)

It was essential, therefore, to understand the situation, as perceived by the relevant actors, in order to make recommendations in terms that were understandable, had meaning to those who wished to increase the effectiveness of division chairpersons, and were congruent with the shared perceptions of the actors. Bogdan and Taylor (1975)

noted that, "The phrase 'shared perception' refers to a definition of a situation which a number of actors hold" (p. 15). They concluded that,

> While people may act within the framework of the organization, it is their [the people's] interpretation of the organization and not the organization which determines action. They contended that social rules, norms, values, and goals may set conditions and consequences for action, but do not determine what a person will do. [underlining in the original]. (p. 15)

Smircich (1983) further developed this thesis when she suggested that, "Human actors do not know or perceive the world, but that they know and perceive their world [underlining in the original]" (p. 161). In effect, individual members of organizations give them their own meaning by their interpretations. She also suggested that, "Disjuncture in systems of meaning, a case of different realities, may account for what is commonly referred to as 'communications breakdown'" (pp. 161/162). She concluded that "The researcher studying organizations as cultures must be concerned with learning the consensual meanings ascribed by a group of people to their experience and articulating the thematic relationships expressed in their meaning systems [underlining in the original]" (p. 165). The need to come to understand these consensual meanings further supported the decision to use qualitative methods. Guba (1978) suggested that, "Problems do not exist in nature but in the minds of people [underlining in the original], a crucial fact and one of the main reasons why one might recommend the naturalistic [qualitative] method in the first place" (p. 44).

In summary then, the researcher in developing the research strategy, asked himself the questions, "What difference would that information make?" and "What could be done if you had the answer to that ques-

tion?" The case study approach, utilizing qualitative methods was appropriate for answering those questions; therefore, the researcher decided that that approach would be best for achieving his goals. This approach to selecting a method was consistent with Denzin's suggestion that, "The issue [choice of methodology] resolves largely into the personal preference of the researcher, the intent of the investigation, the available resources, and the researcher's decision concerning what type of interaction he deserves" (1978, p. 132).

Instruments for Data Collection

> Qualitative measurement has to do with the kinds of data or information that are collected. Qualitative data consist of detailed descriptions [italics in the original] of situations, events, people, interactions, and the observed behaviors; direct quotations [italics in the original] from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts. The data are collected as open-ended narrative without [italics in the original] attempting to fit . . . peoples' experiences into predetermined standardized categories. (Patton, 1980, p. 22)

The researcher's decision to complete a case study and to utilize qualitative methodology led to his decision to use the interview as the primary method for data collection. Additionally he decided to develop an interview guide as the primary instrument for gathering the qualitative data which would allow him to find out what peoples' experiences and interactions meant to them in their own terms; and to permit him to record and understand people in their own terms. The data developed by the interviews of individual division chairpersons was to be supplemented by informal observations and data available to the researcher in his role as a member of the State Council of Division Chairpersons.

Development and Testing of the Instruments

> The interview guide assumes that there is common information that should be obtained from each person interviewed, but no set of standardized questions are written in advance. The interviewer is thus required to adapt both the wording and the sequence of the questions to specific respondents in the context of the actual interview. (Patton, 1980, p. 198)

Using the research questions as a guide to the data to be collected, the interview guide was developed to facilitate the interviews. [See Table 1] The researcher decided to test the interview guide by interviewing himself first. This decision was made for several reasons:

1. To pre-test the interview guide for time, question formation, and the answerability of the questions;

2. To gain experience in asking questions, probing, clarifying, and using the tape recorder;

3. To gain added awareness of the issues to be addressed in this study;

4. To avoid influencing his own responses by knowing in advance the responses of the other participants;

5. To avoid projecting his opinions onto the interviewees.

During the self-interview the researcher found that he developed new insights into the issues raised and became aware of areas that he would likely need to probe in order to get a clearer understanding and insight. As a result of the self-interview, some statements on the in-

Table I

Relationship Between Research Questions and the Interview Guide Questions/Issues

Research Questions	Interview Guide Questions/Issues
1. What are the most important responsibilities of middle managers?	Reasons applied for position; Reasons accepted position; Most enjoyable aspects of position; Least enjoyable aspects of position; Whether intends to remain in position, Reasons, time period; Their most important responsibilities in order of importance; Whether the dean of academic affairs agrees with this; whether faculty agree, how they judge.
2. What criteria do middle managers use to measure their effectiveness?	Their effectiveness in carrying out these responsibilities; Criteria and methods used to measure their own effectiveness in carrying out the responsibilities previously identified; Criteria and methods used to measure their overall effectiveness.
3. What are the major barriers to their effectiveness?	Educational background-degrees/disciplines; Length of time at the college; Positions held at the college and number of years as division chairperson; Major factors which have (or could have) the most positive influence on their effectiveness;

Table 1 Continued

		Major factors (barriers) which limit their effectiveness; Their major strengths as a division chairperson which influence their effectiveness; Any areas of weakness as a division chairperson which are barriers to their effectiveness.
4.	Do middle managers want to increase their effectiveness?	Major factors which have (or could have) the most positive influence on their effectiveness; Whether they want to increase their effectiveness.
5.	Can their effectiveness be increased?	What can be done to increase their effectiveness? The prospects of action being taken or attitudes changed, on any level, to increase their effectiveness.
6.	What changes need to occur in order to increase their effectiveness?	What can be done to increase their effectiveness? The prospects of changes being made on any level, to increase their effectiveness.

terview guide were rewritten for purposes of clarity, some were consolidated because they were redundant, in some instances the sequence of the statements was changed, and a questionnaire was developed for the chairpersons to complete (see Appendices I, II, III, IV, V).

The written responses to the questionnaire were to be completed in advance of the interview. The questionnaire asked for factual information which would help the researcher to understand the chairperson's context during the interview. This technique would thus enable the researcher to spend more time on less factual issues and provide him with information for his consideration when probing for detail or for a clearer understanding of the interviewee's response. The data from the questionnaire was also to be used to assist in analyzing and interpreting the data as well as in developing both conclusions and recommendations. In order to make it more manageable some questions had been removed from the interview guide. Some new questions which the researcher determined to be relevant to understanding the context of the interviewee were added.

The researcher had found during the self-interview that the areas addressed were comprehensive and, if the interview was not properly managed, it could easily take an excessive amount of time, thus diminishing its effectiveness. The researcher's previous experience in conducting interviews indicated that the latter parts of interviews which lasted much more than 90 minutes suffered because the interviewees tired and wanted to finish. Therefore, he sought to limit the interviews to about 80-100 minutes.

The researcher was also aware that some of the information requested, i.e. detailed personnel information, was such that most persons would not have it immediately available. It was more likely that it

would be available and be more accurate if it were gathered in advance. The interviewees would be able to refer to their records and other information sources. In deciding to develop the questionnaire to replace questions in the interview guide, the researcher was guided by his experience as well as by Patton's (1980) advice:

> I advise never beginning an interview with a long list of routine demographic questions. In qualitative interviewing the interviewee needs to become actively involved in providing descriptive information as soon as possible instead of becoming conditioned to providing short-answer, routine responses to uninteresting categorical questions. Some background information may be necessary at the beginning to make sense out of the rest of the interview, but such questions should be tied to descriptive information about present program experience as much as possible (p. 211)

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire by completing it himself before finalizing it for use by the other participants in the study.

Testing the interview guide and the questionnaire then produced modifications of both instruments. The interview guide was made easier and quicker to administer and the questionnaire was expanded. The result was that the two instruments were focused to more effectively generate the depth and detail desired from the data.

Population Sampled

The researcher decided to use the maximum variation sampling strategy with a purposeful sample because the goal of the study was to come to understand something about chairpersons of career divisions without needing to generalize to all such cases. The primary unit of analysis for this inquiry was the individual division chairperson and the primary

data source was a sample of 10 chairpersons of career divisions at seven of 15 community colleges in Massachusetts. Additionally three academic deans and three faculty members of career divisions were interviewed. (The interview guide was modified for use with these groups.) These latter two groups were not intended to serve as representative samples, but rather as additional data sources, who were interviewed approximately mid-way in the process of interviewing the chairpersons. This triangulation of data sources at the mid-point enabled the researcher to compare and cross-check the consistency of the information derived at different times from different data sources. It also provided both an opportunity to complete a similar comparison after all the data were compiled and the content analysis and interpretation were being developed. Because the data developed were consistent with that which had been developed in the interviews with the division chairpersons to that point, no substantive changes were made in the interview guide on the questionnaire as a result of these interviews.

The total population of career division chairpersons in the 15 Massachusetts community colleges numbered 40 at the time the data were collected. One of the criteria established by the researcher for the eligibility of chairpersons to participate in the study was that they had had at least two years of experience as a chairperson of a career division. A maximum of 36 chairpersons had a minimum of two years of experience. The 10 chairpersons in the sample comprised 27 per cent of the 36 persons eligible. This was well within the sampling requirements prescribed for small sample sizes by Denzin (1970), Gay (1976), and Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1978).

Sample Selection

> People simply do not have an equal ability and willingness to make vivid the details and meaning of their lives. . . . He or she cannot perform miracles on people who are not free with their words. (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975, p. 102)

The researcher considered this admonition in deciding which persons from whom he could learn the most. Those are the people that he asked to participate as part of the sample. The researcher selected people who were articulate, knowledgeable, and willing to share information and opinions. The researcher also carefully weighed the admonition of Agyris in considering people to ask to participate in the interviews. Agyris (1960) admonished that:

> The researcher is dependent on the subject's perception of his research as a primary motivating factor. . . . Thus the research itself must somehow be perceived as need fulfilling. The subjects must perceive the research as helping them to gain something . . . to explore problems hitherto not understood and unsolved. They must be convinced that they are contributing to something whose completion will be quite satisfying to them. (p. 114)

The researcher had prior knowledge of each of the division chairpersons whom he asked to participate; and he had some prior relationship with each of them. One source of his knowledge and a basis of relationships with several of the interviewees was a result of his role as a representative to the State Council of Division Chairpersons during the period when this study was completed. This Council was one of several in the Massachusetts Community College System which met monthly during the academic year to discuss issues of system-wide concern. Other Councils included the Deans of Administration, Deans of Student Services, Deans of Continuing Education and Community Services, and Deans of

Academic Affairs. Each of these Councils included representation from each of the 15 community colleges. These Councils made recommendations to the Presidents' Council, comprised of the presidents of the 15 community colleges, which in turn worked directly with the Chancellor of the Board of Regents of Higher Education. The Council of Division Chairpersons made its recommendations to the Council of Academic Deans. Many of the division chairpersons interviewed served on the Council during the period when the study was completed also. For those who had not served on the Council, the researcher had maintained a working relationship with them on various projects over the years. These relationships allowed the researcher to make a knowledgeable judgment about the appropriateness of each interviewee selected, as well as subsequently assisting him in conducting an effective interview. Additionally, it provided the researcher with an opportunity to make some judgments about the consistency of what the interviewees said during the interviews and their statements and behaviors in other settings.

Two of the three faculty members selected taught at colleges other than the researcher's college. They were selected by the researcher upon consultation with other division chairpersons. The researcher described the type of faculty member whom he wished to interview as one with at least two years of full-time teaching experience at the college, as well as being articulate and willing to share information and opinions candidly. Using these same standards, the researcher selected one person from his own college, not a member of his division. The referring chairperson was asked to make the initial faculty contact and if the person expressed interest, the researcher followed up with a call.

If the faculty member agreed to be interviewed, a letter was sent confirming the time and location of the interview.

The deans were selected in a like manner, using similar standards. One additional eligibility requirement which the researcher set for selecting a dean was that the person selected should have had at least two years of experience as an academic dean in the System. The researcher selected the Dean at his College as one of the deans to be interviewed. Additionally, he requested the Dean's assistance in identifying other deans to interview. The researcher strategized that the deans selected would be more accessible and candid if their colleague, a senior dean and a person held in high regard by them, made the initial contacts. The Dean agreed and did make the contacts. Once they indicated an initial interest, the researcher followed up with a call, and, if they agreed, letters were sent confirming the time and location of the interview.

Sample Characteristics

> A different strategy for dealing with the problem of representativeness under conditions of small sample size is to maximize the variation in site selection. By attempting to increase the diversity or variation in the sample the evaluator will have more confidence in those patterns that emerge. (Patton, 1980, p. 102)

The major characteristics considered in selecting the chairpersons who were asked to participate included: gender, area of academic responsibility, demography and geography of the location of the college, and the enrollment of the college. These characteristics were considered in addition to the previously stated eligibility requirement of

a minimum of two years of experience in their positions and a judgment about their willingness and ability to be interviewed. Although the other characteristics were given consideration when possible, selection of deans and faculty members was based primarily upon the latter two considerations given the numbers (three each) involved.

The division chairperson selected represented seven of the 15 division chairpersons. The colleges were fairly evenly distributed among urban, suburban, and rural, and included the colleges with the smallest and largest enrollments in the community college system. The divisions represented all of the career areas and were also almost equally divided among business, human services and health professions, and technical studies which generally included engineering and computer-related programs. The interviewees were equally divided between males and females, and included at least one person from a racial minority. The distribution of participants accurately reflected the distribution of the 36 eligible chairpersons at the time when the interviewees were selected.

The three academic deans in the study were not intended to be a representative sample, but they did represent 25 per cent of the 12 permanent academic deans at the time. Three of the colleges had acting academic deans or were in the process of replacing a dean who had resigned, and were therefore excluded from being considered for the sample. The deans were selected primarily for the reasons indicated earlier, but the enrollment and organizational complexity as well as the demography and geography of their college's location were also considered. The two colleges with the smallest enrollment, one urban

and one rural, did not have permanent deans. Therefore, the deans selected were from medium to large size colleges in urban and suburban areas. They represented one of the oldest colleges and one of the newest colleges in the system as well as representing multi-campus and single campus colleges. Each of the deans had at least two years of experience in their positions and some had many more. They had varying years of collegiate teaching ex- perience at the community and four-year college levels. In each instance, although not by design, a division chairperson was also interviewed at the college of each participating dean.

The three full-time faculty members were even less representative. Only three of more than 500 professors were selected. They represented three separate academic areas. One was a curriculum or program coordinator responsible for a career program. Another had just become a department chairperson, and another had a limited amount of experience as an assistant to a division chairpersons. Each one had had several years of experience teaching at the community level and at their respective col- leges. One was a graduate of a community college and two had been adult learners themselves. The sample represented three separate colleges with similar characteristics as those of the academic deans. Two of the three, once again not by design, were from the same colleges as the academic deans and all were from colleges of participating division chairpersons.

Procedures for Administration

> The fundamental principle of qualitative interviewing is to provide a framework within which respondents can express their own understanding in their own terms [underlining in the original]. (Patton, 1980, p. 205)

After the participants were selected and had agreed to participate in the study, the researcher developed a strategy for conducting the interviews. In developing the strategy he considered Patton's suggestion that, "The task undertaken by the interviewer is to make it possible for the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into his or her world" (1980, p. 197).

The researcher planned to establish rapport with the interviewees, but not in such a way that it undermined his neutrality concerning what the interviewees said to him. "Neutrality means that the person being interviewed can tell me anything without engendering either my favor or disfavor with regard to the content of their response" (Patton, 1980, p. 231). One of the researcher's goals for the interviews was to have, as Patton wrote:

> A good interview [which] lays open thoughts, feelings, knowledge, and experience not only to the interviewer, but also the interviewee. The process . . . leaves them knowing things about themselves that they didn't know--or at least were not aware of--before the interviews. (1980, p. 252)

Sudman (1980) noted, "Most respondents are participating voluntarily. They will wish to perform their roles properly, that is, to give the best information they can. It is your responsibility to reinforce this tendency" (p. 6). The information gathered would be in

response to the questions raised by the researcher using the interview guide. The researcher's strategy for using the interview guide took into consideration the advice of Lazarsfeld (1972):

> We advocate a rather loose and liberal handling of a questionnaire [i.e., guide], by an interviewer. It seems to us much more important that the question be fixed in its meaning than in its wording. This new emphasis places the responsibility on the interviewer for knowing exactly what he is trying to discover and permits him to vary the wording in accordance with the experience of the respondent [underling in the original]. (p. 193)

Following this advice requires the practice of reflective listening throughout the interview. Smircich (1983) described reflective listening as:

> Reflective or active listening is an energetic effort to receive fully the message being communicated by another through verbal and nonverbal means. It involves attending to the words and feelings being expressed explicitly or implicitly and encouraging the speaker to continue to elaborate. (p. 166)

The importance of reflective or active listening was also emphasized by Lofland (1971) who argued that:

> Because there is no strict order of questioning and because probing is an important part of the process, the interviewer must be very alive to the talk of the interviewee. One's full attention must be on the interviewee. One must be thinking about probing for further explication or clarification of what he is now saying . . . and attending to the interviewee in a manner that communicates to him that you are listening. (p. 89)

The importance of active listening made it essential for the interviewer to use a tape recorder. Therefore, part of the researcher's strategy included tape-recording each of the interviews. The literature strongly supported this approach. Lofland (1971) said that, "For all intents and purposes it is imperative that one tape-record or otherwise

preserve the interview itself" (p. 80); Patton (1980) called it "indispensable" (p. 247); and Bogdan and Taylor (1975) advised the interviewer to use a tape recorder "whenever possible" (p. 109).

Bogdan and Taylor (1975) suggested, "Since a tape recorder can only capture words, you should also record any striking non-verbal expressions [underlining in the original] made during the interview" (p. 119). They noted that:

> A subject's gesture, such as a grimace, a smile, or a blush, may be essential to understanding the meaning of his or her words when you try later to interpret the data. What would later appear to be sincerity, for example, may actually be sarcasm. (p. 119)

The researcher planned to accomplish this by having a separate copy of the interview guide for each person interviewed. Space for the interviewee's name, position, college and the date of the interview was provided on each copy of the interview guide. Notes were to be made during the interview in the space provided for each question or issue on the guide.

Collection of the Data

Data for the study were collected primarily through the questionnaire distributed to each division chairperson who was interviewed and the completion of the interviews of 10 chairpersons of career divisions, three academic deans, and three faculty members of career divisions. Additional data, in the form of informal observations and ad hoc surveys of division chairpersons, were collected by the researcher as a result

of his membership on the State Council of Division Chairpersons before, during and after the study was completed.

The Questionnaire

The researcher developed the questionnaire after pre-testing the interview guide. He determined that the interview guide, as initially developed, required a great deal of demographic data which, although important for the study, could make the interview less interesting and too long, thus diminishing its effectiveness. He also decided to include some issues not initially addressed, such as the chairperson's responsibility in the division of continuing education and community services and the availability of secretarial support to them. The researcher decided to add the questions about the responsibility in the division of continuing education and community services because it became apparent from his personal experience and from discussions with division chairpersons throughout the System, that they were expected to assume increased responsibility, as part of their regular responsibilities, in that area. Traditionally division chairpersons had had limited responsibility in the division of continuing education and community services and when they did they generally received additional compensation for that work. Work in this division usually occurred in the evening, on weekends, and during the summer. This increased expectation meant that for those who were responsible for programs and courses in divisions of continuing education and community services, it broadened their scope of responsibility. The researcher decided to determine the

degree to which this responsibility was being added, and what effect, in the opinion of the division chairpersons, it had had on their effectiveness.

Each interview was set with a telephone call during which the researcher confirmed the willingness of each person to participate, reviewed the purpose of the study, requested approval to use a tape recorder, and asked each chairperson to complete the questionnaire and have it available to him about 15 minutes or so before the interview in order for him to briefly review it in preparation for the interview.

The researcher followed up the call with a letter to each participant, confirming the time and location of the interview and enclosing a copy of the questionnaire with a reminder of its purpose and when it was to be completed. The form was completed in advance in all but one instance in which the person had lost it. The interviewee gave the information to the researcher verbally before the interview began and then, on a spare questionnaire which the researcher brought with him to each interview, the interviewee completed the questionnaire and sent it to the researcher within a few days.

The Interviews

The researcher interviewed himself because he wanted to include his own opinions in the data collected. As a chairperson of a career division for more than 10 years he had developed opinions about the areas under study. He interviewed himself first in order to clarify his own values/opinions and to consciously avoid loading the questions with

biases. Additionally, he was influenced by the suggestions of Selltiz and Becker:

> A review of the investigator's own experience [underlining in the original] and a careful examination of his reactions as he attempts to project himself into the situation of the subjects he is studying may be a valuable source of insights. After all, the "case" with which the investigator is likely to have the greatest familiarity is himself. Here is a source of ideas that ought not be neglected. (Selltiz, 1967, p. 64)

> It seems to me that since the subject matter . . . is the social life in which we are all involved, the ability to make imaginative use of personal experience and the very quality of one's personal experience will be important contributors to one's technical skills [in doing research]. Becker, 1970, p. 22)

The interviews of the other participants were conducted over a period of four months. Each interview was conducted in the interviewee's campus office or in a room which had been reserved by the interviewee to allow for privacy and to prevent interruptions. Several of the interviews were conducted during the summer months which caused delay as many faculty members and division chairpersons were on vacation and not available to be interviewed. The interviews could not resume until late September as the interviewees were not available during the first weeks of class. Thus the time required to complete the interviews was extended. The researcher's data-gathering process was thus slowed down, but he benefitted as many of the interviewees appeared to be relaxed after the first weeks of the semester were completed and thus they were willing to give time and thought to the interviews. The interviews during the academic year as during the summer, were scheduled at various times during the day at the request of the interviewees.

Prior to turning on the tape recorder for each interview the researcher confirmed much of what he had discussed with the interviewee when he requested each's participation. He described the purpose of the study, each's importance to the study, how and why he had asked each to participate, and assured the confidentiality and anonymity of the participant. The researcher assured each participant that quotes would not be attributed and that data would be reported in such a way that neither the gender of individuals nor their division or college would be identified. He indicated that if gender were found to be a factor to be reported, it would be stated, "A female division chairperson said" or something similar. In the instance of the minority division chairperson and the female dean, their opinions would not be attributed, as there was only one person in each category involved in the study. These commitments were made in an effort to maximize the comfort of the interviewees and their willingness to share information and opinions honestly, clearly, and candidly.

The researcher pointed out to the interviewees that he was interested in their opinions, their present and past experiences, as well as their suggestions for the future. He emphasized that it was important for him to understand their thinking on particular issues, and why they held those opinions. The researcher encouraged the interviewees to ask for clarification of any questions that he might ask and, if appropriate, to ask questions themselves. The researcher was particularly concerned about this. He wanted to insure that each interviewee was responding to a question that was understood in the same way so that he could have confidence in comparing their responses.

After all of this was completed, the researcher confirmed in each instance that he had permission to tape-record the interview. The researcher took an additional step to encourage candor and a free exchange of opinions and information. He used an external microphone with an on/off switch which could only be controlled by the interviewee. If there was something that needed to be said, but that they did not feel comfortable putting it on tape he advised them to shut off the tape recorder and to continue with their comments. On a couple of occasions this option was exercised and very sensitive, but important, background information was provided. This helped to clarify and give deeper meaning to earlier comments and opinions of the interviewee. The researcher made a personal short-hand note on the interview guide and, after the interview was completed and he was listening to the tapes and making notes, he made detailed notes of the comments for consideration in the analysis and interpretation.

Finally, before beginning the interview the researcher told each interviewee that he was going to be using an interview guide and went on to describe its purpose. The researcher indicated that his intent was to be certain that all of the issues were addressed and that a common core of issues was addressed. Depending upon how the interview flowed, the sequence of the questions could vary and all of the questions might not actually be asked. In point of fact, all of the issues were addressed in each interview. In a few interviews the researcher had to address nearly every issue with a specific question. In most instances the interviewee's responses were such that several issues were addressed

by the interviewee without a question being asked, but rather as part of the flow of conversation from a previous question.

Time is precious in an interview. The researcher sought to maintain control of the direction and pace of the interview by encouraging the interviewees to continue by giving them verbal clues about how the interview was going as well as sending messages through his facial expression and body language. At times questions were rephrased for the interviewee, or it was gently indicated that the interviewee had either missed the point of the question, or for some reason had not responded to the question which had been asked.

The researcher made notes on the interview guide which provided assistance when he later listened to the tapes and analyzed the data. The notes included key phrases, lists of major points made by the interviewee, and key terms or words in quotation marks that captured the interviewee's own language. He also noted any nonverbal behavior which might help him in better understanding the responses.

At the end of each interview the researcher asked the same open-ended question of each interviewee. The researcher asked:

> Given the goals of this study, do you have any other comments or any other information which we have not touched upon which would help me to understand your thinking about the issues involved, especially the question of how the effectiveness of division chairpersons can be increased?

Most people responded by saying that hey thought that the interview had been very thorough and that they had covered a great deal of ground. In some instances they indicated that they had thought about some issues from a new perspective during the interview and as a consequence had

actually developed some new insights. In a few instances, though, this question opened up another 10/20 minute discussion of tangential and helpful information which further clarified some of the earlier discussion.

The researcher recognized that the period after each interview was critical to the quality of the data. Therefore, he arranged to have time immediately after the interview or within an hour or two of completing the interview, to follow-up. First, he checked the tape recorder to be certain that it had functioned properly. In one instance the tape recorder, unbeknownst to the researcher, had malfunctioned. The recording was distorted and, it appeared that some of the interview had not been recorded. The researcher following Patton's (1980, p. 254) advice for dealing with such situations drew upon his memory, the part of the interview that was recorded, and the notes on the interview guide and developed extensive notes of everything that he could remember. These notes were attached to the tape to be used in developing the case record. The researcher also regularly checked all of his notes on each interview to be certain that they were clear and made sense as they might not be looked at again for quite a while when the memories of the interview would be far less vivid. The researcher regularly listened to the entire tape within a day of completing the interview in order to guarantee that the data obtained was useful, reliable, and valid. He listened carefully to be certain that he had found out what he had intended. He also used them as a way of learning how he might be more effective during the next interview. This period was also, in effect, the beginning of the analysis which would be developed later. Ideas,

observations, and interpretations were written down and labeled as such to be used later.

The interviews were not fully transcribed due to considerations of cost, time, and an assessment of the value of such transcripts to achieving the goals of the research. Transcription of interviews, although frequently desirable, is not always necessary. As Patton (1980) cautioned:

> Where resources are not sufficient to permit full transcriptions, the interviewer can work back and forth between interview notes and sections of the tape; only those quotations that are particularly important to take from the tape for data analysis and reporting need to be transcribed. (p. 248)

Lofland (1971) supported this approach:

> Moreover, it is probably not necessary that one transcribe every word. . . . The point here is that one wants a written record of what the interviewee said so one can find it again. . . . The written record indicated where to look for the verbatim version. If one later wants to use the verbatim version it can easily be transcribed. (p. 91)

The researcher listened to each tape at least three times, notes were taken, and specific quotations were transcribed. The tapes and the notes were retained as supporting data for the study.

Presentation of the Data Collected

> One of the major decisions that has to be made about what to omit involves a corresponding decision about how much description to include. Description and quotation are the essential ingredients of qualitative inquiry. Sufficient description and direct quotation should be included to allow the reader to enter into the situation and the thoughts of the people represented in the report. Description should stop short, however, of becoming trivial and mundane. (Patton, 1980, p. 343)

The case data in this study include: interviews, the results of a questionnaire, and observations. Once the case data were accumulated, the researcher developed a case record which classified and organized the case data into a comprehensive primary resource. In developing the case record the researcher listened to the interview tapes at least two more times. He recorded each question or issue raised on the interview guide on a separate paper, coded each page in order to be able to access and retrieve the information quickly, and then made notes under each question while listening to the tapes. The response to each question was summarized and, where appropriate, entire sections were transcribed. Based upon his judgment of its significance and in consideration of the need to provide rich descriptive information and quotations. The researcher determined which information to transcribe.

The record included a summary of the data produced by the written questionnaire completed by the division chairpersons which provided detailed information about several characteristics of their respective divisions. The researcher also reviewed notes that he had made during meetings of the State Council of Division Chairpersons, including the period when the study was completed. The notes were reviewed and those which were directly related to the research questions were used in developing the case record which formed the basis of the data presentation. The notes, along with the rest of the case record, provided the data which would be part of the descriptive information used in the study. The purpose of this description was to provide the reader with a clear understanding of the role of division chairpersons of career divisions, to understand their context, and the factors which influenced

their effectiveness, from their perspective. The case record was developed to bring order to the data and to provide the data to be used in the case study. The case record represents the data presentation section of the study.

Analysis of the Data

> Focus in analyzing qualitative data collected from in-depth interviewing . . . comes from the evaluation questions generated at the beginning of the evaluation process. (Patton, 1980, p. 295).

The analysis actually began with the formulation of the research questions and continued during the course of gathering data as ideas occurred to the researcher. As they occurred he made notes to himself. These notes became part of the case record listed as "Ideas" and thus were an early part of the analysis. Patton (1980) asserted that, "This overlapping of data collection and analysis improves both the quality of the data collected and the quality of the analysis" (p. 297). These analytic insights or ideas, along with the research questions, formed the basis of the organization of the analysis.

The researcher began the concentrated analysis of the interview data by reading the pages of notes, quotations, and ideas which he had developed in creating the case record. While reviewing the data he searched carefully to identify categories, themes, and patterns that appeared to emerge from the data. This was the process of inductive analysis. Patton (1980) said that:

> Inductive analysis means that patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection andanalysis. The analyst looks for natural variation in the data. (p. 306)

After he had identified, described, and labeled apparent categories, he coded each of them and recorded each of them on a separate paper. Then he read through the notes, coded each section appropriately, and recorded the frequency of occurrence in each category on the appropriately labled paper. He also coded each interviewee. Therefore, in recording the frequency and, where appropriate, transcribing a specific statement, he coded it so that he knew which interviewee had made a particular comment. Each category was separately filed and an index of the categories was developed to assist in the retrieval of information and to focus on identifying patterns and themes which began to emerge from the data.

After reviewing the categories, the researcher labeled and described the patterns and themes that emerged. He continued to review the data in an effort to clearly identify the patterns and themes. The researcher worked back and forth between the data and the classification system to verify the meaningfulness and accuracy of the categories and the placement of the data in categories. The researcher combined approaches to representing the patterns that emerged. He used the categories developed and articulated by the interview guide and by the interviewees (indigenous typologies). He also developed his own descriptions and labels for categories and patterns which had not been labeled or somehow described in the interviews, the interview guide, or the research quesions (analyst-constructed typologies).

In completing the analysis the researcher was sensitive to the potential for creating patterns and themes that were not really in the data. One way in which he did this was to leave the work on the analysis for a period of time and either worked on another aspect of the study or stayed away from the study for as little as a few days, but as long as a week and a half. When he returned to the data he reviewed the case record and the categories that had been identified to determine whether the data could support alternative explanations. He sought the best fit between data and analysis. This resulted in some changes, i.e., adding, deleting, combining, and changing the description and labels of some patterns and themes that emerged.

In completing the inductive analysis the researcher dealt with what Guba (1978) described as the problem of "convergence" or figuring out what things fit together. Guba suggested that categories and patterns should be judged by two criteria:

> "Internal homogeneity, and "external homogeneity." The first criterion concerns the extent to which the data that belong in a certain category hold together or "'dovetail' in a meaningful way." The second criterion concerns the extent to which differences among the categories [and patterns] are bold and clear. (p. 53)

The researcher also dealt with what Guba (1978) described as the problem of "divergence," or how to "flesh out" the categories. Guba suggested that this be done by processes of extension (building on items of information already known), bridging (making connections among different items), and surfacing (proposing new information that ought to fit and then verifying its existence). When the sources of information were exhausted and the categories were saturated to the degree that redun-

dancy occurred, the researcher brought closure to the process of inductive analysis. The researcher found the process to be as Guba (1978) and Patton (1980) described it. Guba said that, "The task of converting field notes and observations about issues and concerns into systematic categories is a difficult one. No infallible procedure exists for performing it" (p. 53). Patton described it as "arty and intuitive" (p. 313).

Triangulation of the Data

Data were collected from several sources including the 10 chairpersons of career divisions, three faculty members of career divisions, and three deans of academic affairs. Additionally, the researcher observed the public and private behavior and comments of many of the division chairpersons at their monthly State Council of Division Chairpersons meetings and at conferences, as well as that of those division chairpersons with whom he worked. A questionnaire was completed by each of the chairpersons interviewed. The data from these questionnaires was tabulated as part of the case record.

The data developed through the interviews with the academic deans and the faculty members were recorded using the same processes as those used with the data from the division chairpersons. The categories, patterns, and themes were cross-checked for consistency with those developed with the chairperson data. In most instances they were consistent. In those instances where they were not consistent, note was made and the researcher sought to understand and explain the

inconsistency. The researcher's observational notes and the results of the questionnaire were compared with the interview data in an effort to understand and further explain it. The emerging consistency in the overall patterns of data from the different sources and the explanations that were developed for the differences in the data from the different sources contributed greatly to the researcher's confidence in the data and the analysis. The use of triangulation allowed the researcher to reduce systematic bias.

Interpretation of the Data

The interpretation of the data involved attaching meaning and signifi- cance to the inductive analysis, explaining the descriptive patterns, and identifying the relationship and linkages amongst the descriptive dimensions. The process of interpretation involved the process of forming a perspective in which the data gathered were integrated into an organic configuration.

The researcher reviewed the categories, themes, and patterns that emerged and considered the research questions. Additionally, the researcher considered the context of the division chairpersons individually and as a group in developing his interpretation of the data. This interpretation was reported as the findings of the study.

Delimitations

Limits were imposed on the study by the researcher in order to focus upon a particular area of interest and to make the task manageable. The study was limited to chairpersons of career divisions in the public Community College System in Massachusetts. Consequently, the findings cannot be generalized beyond cohorts that correspond to the sample in all significant ways. The findings do provide a perspective and some useful, grounded information to be considered by chairpersons of career divisions, senior administrators (including presidents and aca- demic deans), as well as by anyone else concerned with the effectiveness of chairperson of career divisions and other middle managers.

CHAPTER IV

DIVISION CHAIRPERSONS

This chapter discusses the emerging and changing role of division chairpersons with a focus upon the chairpersons of career divisions in the Massachusetts Community College System. The organization and structure of community colleges, including the role of division chairpersons, is described; the researcher's search of the literature regarding the role of division chairpersons and salient factors influencing their effectiveness is described; the literature is discussed; developments and changes in the Massachusetts Community College System are described; and the emerging and changing role of the division chairpersons, with a focus on career divisions, is described.

Organizational Structure of Community Colleges

Community colleges generally have flat organizational structures with no more than two levels of management between the president and the faculty. Although there is no standard pattern or size of divisions, most community colleges are organized into divisions which frequently include several academic disciplines and/or clusters or career programs. The most consistent pattern is for academic disciplines, such as humanities, social sciences, or mathematics and science, to form separate divisions, and for health, business administration, computer science, engineering and human services to form separate divisions. The

organization into divisions which include related disciplines and career programs, lends itself to cooperation among the faculty and programs in the division.

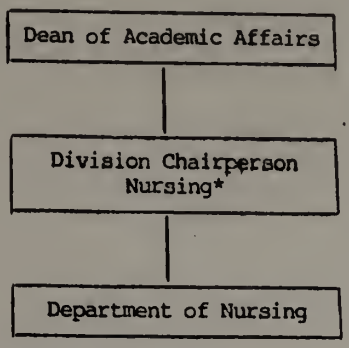
The organization of community colleges in Massachusetts varies, with as many as nine divisions at one college and as few as three at another. The divisions themselves vary in size and mix of disciplines/programs, ranging from single-discipline divisions, such as Registered Nursing, to divisions which include a combination of more than 20 programs and departments (See Figure 1). One college has division chairpersons, but no department chairpersons or program coordinators. Others have a combination of divisions and department chairpersons/program coordinators. The latter positions are filled by faculty members who are supervised by the division chairpersons. The faculty of career divisions teach primarily in certificate or associate degree programs which have as their primary objective the preparation of graduates for immediate job entry. The responsibilities of division chairpersons at some community colleges include only the day division (state-funded) programs, while others include programs offered in the division of continuing education and community services (self-supporting).

Division Chairpersons

> An institution can run for a long time with an inept president but not long with inept chairpersons. (Tucker, 1984, p. xi)

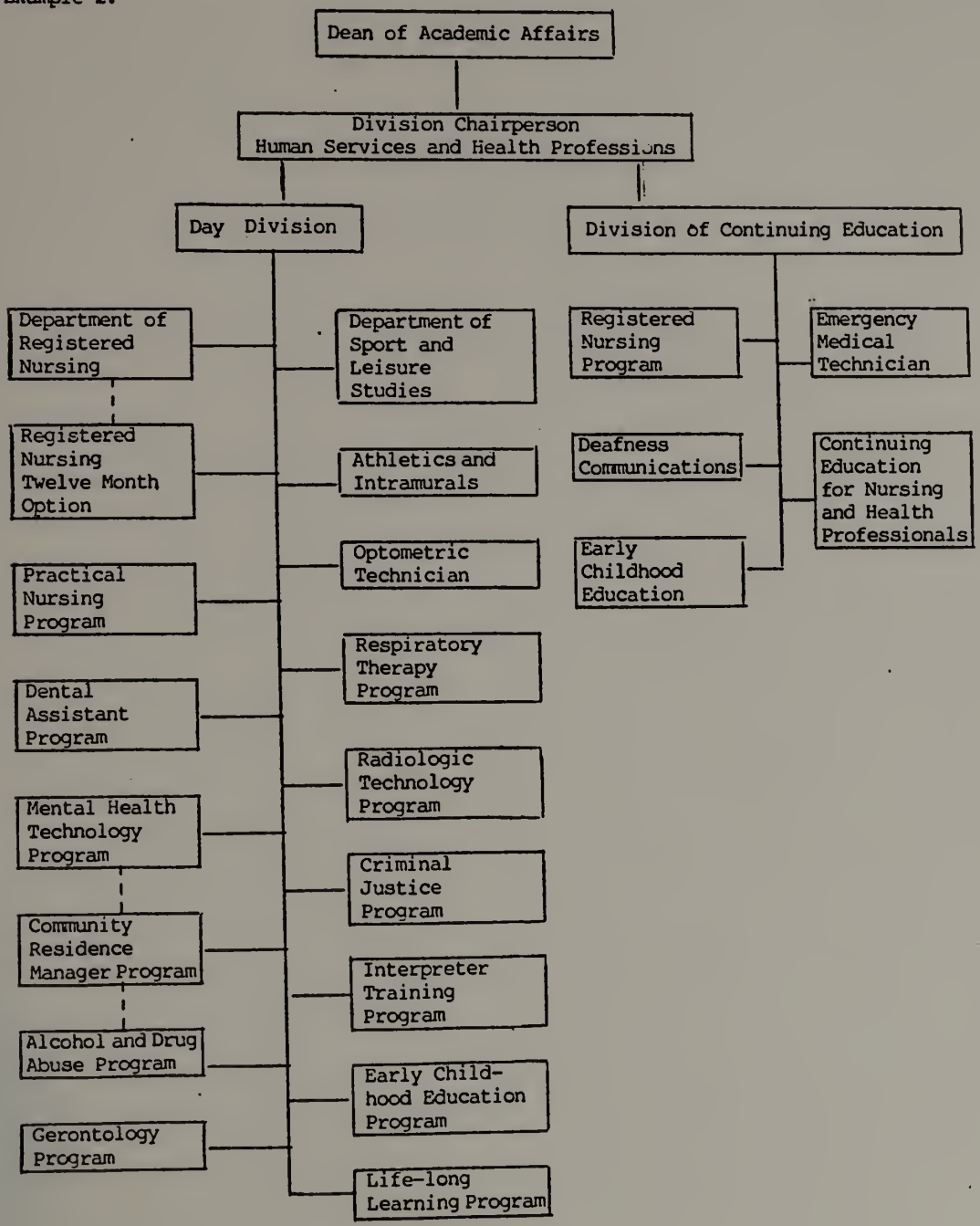
Figure 1. Examples of Divisional Organizations at Community Colleges

Example 1.



*Limited to Day Division Responsibilities

Example 2.



Division chairpersons are generally the first line of administration at community colleges. Additionally, the flat administrative structure requires them to function as middle managers as well. They are, therefore, involved in supervision as well as in policy making and other middle management functions. Division chairpersons have been described as "A fulcrum and lever operated at both ends" (Lombardi, 1974, p. 14). This metaphor accurately described the division chairperson as the person in the middle. If they are to provide the leadership needed to achieve institutional and divisional objectives, division chairpersons must be able to work effectively with those whom they supervise, as well as those to whom they report. The importance of the role of division chairpersons was described by Hammons (1984) who asserted that:

> The success of individual community colleges in the decades ahead will depend upon their ability to respond quickly to the educational needs of their service area with relevant high quality instruction furnished via a flexible delivery system - and at a competitive cost. Given this charge and the organizational chart of a typical community college, any beginning student of organizational behavior would quickly point to the first level supervisor, the department/division chairperson as a key determinant in the future of the community college. (p. 14)

Hammons' assertion appears to capture the impact of the growth, development, and emerging importance of the position of department/division chairpersons in community colleges throughout the United States. Branch (1982) found that, "The position of department/division chairperson has been generally accepted as a vital part of instructional leadership in community college" (p. 1). Tucker (1984) found that, "The number of division and department chairpersons per community college ranges from seven to 75 with an average of 21

per institution. The total number for all community colleges is approximately 27,000" (p. 30). The numbers alone appear to underline the growing importance and recognition of the role of division chairpersons.

At the present time there is no standard job description for the position of division chairperson in the community colleges. But, most community colleges expect, at a minimum, that division chairpersons will: implement the collective-bargaining agreement (where appropriate), maintain quality control of curricula offerings, recruit, select, and evaluate divisional personnel, develop and implement external funding proposals, and perhaps teach courses. Priorities among these responsibilitiees vary from institution to institution, and in many instances, from division to division. Tucker (1984) noted that, "Each chairperson, to a large degree, created the role according to his or her own talents and skills within a framework that is consistent with institutional, departmental, and personal goals, both academic and administrative" (p. 50). The responsibilities of division chairpersons have changed from that of teaching (with some administrative responsibility) to primarily administrative. Increasingly, they have been expected to work a traditional 12 month administrative schedule, with appropriate vacation allowance, as opposed to the nine month (academic year) schedule of a faculty member.

Career Divisions

Community colleges offer career (sometimes described as terminal) programs and transfer programs. Career programs are frequently considered to be terminal in that their primary goal is to prepare their students for immediate job entry by developing the neccessary skills and credentials to enter a particular career field. These programs include Registered Nursing, Radiologic Technology, Interpreter Training, Early Chilhood Education, Business Administration, Computer Science, and other similar programs. Programs designed primarily for transfer include mostly arts or general education courses paralleling the first two years of education at four-year colleges and universities. The distribution of disciplines in such programs usually includes courses in basic communications, social sciences, natural science, mathematics, and humanities. The development of a career focus in some transfer programs, the increase in general education requirements of many career programs, and the growing number of transfer agreements between two-year and four-year colleges have begun to blur this distinction.

Although the universal organizational structure at community colleges varies, this distinction between programs and the basic separation between career and non-career programs has organizational implications. Community colleges are usually organized into fairly homogenous academic divisions which include programs which share certain areas of commonality, such as the cluster of disciplines involved in social science, natural science, humanities, or career areas such as

health, office education, business, engineering, and human services. The requirements of career programs place expectations on the colleges which exceed those of the non-career areas and, therefore, affect the mission of the college and the allocation of human and financial resources. These requirements are created by external accrediting agencies licensing boards, prospective employers of graduates, and affiliating agencies where students are placed for internships or clinical education.

All divisions, however share the following characteristics:

- Highly educated and talented faculty who tend to be more loyal to their discipline or profession than to the college or division;
- Several disciplines which develop complementary skills and fre- quently share equipment, space, and possibly faculty;
- A variety of courses ranging from introductory to advanced;
- The need to periodically change, add, and delete courses;
- The need to be aware of the expectations of four-year schools to which students seek transfer.

Athough all divisions share these characteristics, career divisions have additional characteristics which make them unique. These include:

- Offer several highly specialized programs with technically trained and qualified faculty - often in areas of high demand and limited availability;
- Program review and evaluation conducted by external agencies, including accreditation reviews;

- Provide multiple contacts with the community including program advisory committees and clinical affiliations;
- Require sensitivity to changes in the professional and employment enviroment which can affect faculty and students, with little advance notice;
- Require costly equipment in fields involved with rapid technological change;
- Scrutinize curriculum continuously due to accreditation, career and related requirements and influences;
- Develop curricula or curriculum options for changing and developing career fields.

One effect of these characteristics is that faculty in career divisions have more power and fewer restrictions. This is because of the facultys' specialized skills, as well as the power of external accrediting bodies, licensing agencies, and employers.

Chairpersons of Career Divisions

Although all divisions and all division chairpersons share common characteristics and responsibilities, chairpersons of career divisions have additional responsibilities which flow from the additional characteristics of career divisions. These characteristics noted above, and the power of the career program faculty, add responsibility and complexity to the position of chairperson of a career division. At the same time, these characteristics effectively limit the influence of the chairperson. The power of the faculty and its influence on the college was described by Baldridge and others (1984):

> Expertise buys power in any organization. Like other kinds of professional organizations, colleges and universities have experts who handle the complex tasks . . . . Those professionals always demand control over working conditions in their organizations. Thus, other things being equal, the greater the knowledge required in any organization, the greater the power of the experts. They will have fewer bureaucratic rules and greater professional autonomy. (p. 121)

Although the characteristics of career divisions place limitations on the effectiveness of chairpersons, they simutaneously make their responsibilities more extensive and complex. In addition to the responsibilities shared with all other division chairpersons, they must also carry out additional responsibilities as outlined in Table 2.

The responsibilities of chairpersons of career divisions are more complex and extensive than those of non-career divisions and the importance of their role will continue to increase in the foreseeable future. Both nationally and in Massachusetts the percentage of students enrolled in career programs has increased to the point that more than 70 per cent of the students attending community colleges are enrolled in career programs. States increasingly see community colleges as an important part of their economic development strategy. They are expected to provide education for those whose skills have become obsolete or who are seeking to upgrade themselves, or offer training programs for chronically unemployed persons, including welfare recipients.

Chairpersons of career divisions, then, have a very important responsibility for providing the leadership necessary to move their institutions toward fulfilling their missions. Division chairpersons

work directly with the faculty, interpret the goals of the institutions to the faculty, and find ways to maximize the effort, involvement, and effectiveness of each faculty member. Because existing programs must constantly change to maintain currency and to insure that students develop the skills necessary to be employed in the career fields for which they were prepared, this is especially the case in career divisions.

Table 2

Responsibilities of Chairpersons of Career and Non-Career Divisions

Responsibility	Career	Non-Career
Quality Control of Curricula Offerings[a]	x	x
Recruitment of Students	x	x
Recruit, Select and Evaluate Personnel	x	x
Implementation of Collective Bargaining (where appropriate)	x	x
Develop and Implement External Funding Proposals[b]	x	x
Instruction of Students	x	x
Work with Advisory Committees[c]	x	
Responsibility to External Accrediting Agencies[d]	x	
Involvement with Community Groups[e]	x	
Acquisition and Maintenance of Equipment[f]	x	

Note

[a]Although all division chairpersons share this responsibility, the frequent changes required by changing occupational needs make this a heavier and more consistent responsibility for career division chairpersons.

[b]Although this is a common responsibility the availability of funds and the need for new programs and equipment results in much more involvement in this area for career chairpersons.

[c]Career programs generally have advisory committees which meet regularly. Frequently these committes are required by accrediting

agencies or other external agencies which have some authority over the program. Non-career programs seldom have advisory committees.

[d]External accrediting and licensing agencies frequently establish qualifications for instructors, curriculum content, set equipment and space requirements, require periodic reports, require periodic reaccreditation, and determine, directly or indirectly, graduation requirements.

[e]The need to: remain in contact with clinical affiliates, and possible employers, and to remain current with changes in the needs of the college's service area requires active involvement with community groups.

[f]Many career programs such as computer technology, office education, and respiratory therapy require the acquisition and maintenance of frequently expensive and sophisticated equipment which is seldom required of non-career programs.

Literature on Division Chairpersons

In spite of the universally agreed upon need for effective division chairpersons, the literature addressing this subject is very limited. The researcher found very little that directly addressed the issue of the leadership effectiveness of division chairpersons. Tucker (1984) apparently had a similar experience and expressed his surprise:

> Given the importance of the chairperson's position, the lack of published material about it is surprising. Occasional studies and compendia of journal articles about the position have appeared but have usually been of little immediate help to those struggling to be good chairpersons. Practitioners have not been well served by this literature. (xi)

Literature Search

Although the researcher's search and review of the literature confirmed Tucker's findings relative to published materials, it is important to note that Branch (1982) completed a comprehensive study of the role of the division chairpersons that included unpublished literature in the field. She found that, "The identification and clarification of roles and responsibilities of division chairpersons in community colleges has been the subject of nineteen doctoral dissertations. No literature source was found that proposed how these factors qualitatively influence the workload" (pp.3/4).

The researcher completed a BRS/ERIC computer search for report citations in Resources in Education (RIE) and for journal citations in

the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE). The key works included: community/junior college(s), two-year colleges, division chairpersons, department chairpersons, and middle-management. The computer search of these sources and the Bibliographic Retrieval Service (BRS) covered the period from 1966 through July 1984. Bibliographies of key dissertations which were obtained were utilized as a further source of information. The Education Index was searched manually for appropriate journal articles for the time period 1969 May 1985: key words used were junior college administrators and heads of departments. Bibliographies and reference sections of key books were also utilized to identify materials in the area of leadership and effectiveness. A very important source in this area was Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, edited by Bass in 1980. Psychological Abstracts was searched from 1966 through December 1984 utilizing the same key words as the other searches. The results were minimal. Finally, a business data base (ABI/Inform) was searched for the same time period, but with even more limited results.

The researcher's search identified 53 dissertations which studied department/division chairpersons in two-year colleges. Many of them addressed narrow local issues, and the majority, as Branch had reported, addressed the issue of role perception and responsibility. A review of these dissertations and/or abstracts in Dissertation Abstracts International did not identify any dissertations which either directly addressed the issue of leadership effectiveness or the role of chairpersons of career divisions. Other than doctoral dissertations, there was limited material in the literature on the sub-

ject of department/division chairpersons in two-year colleges. In general, the articles and reports described what was currently known about emergence of the position in both two and four-year colleges, the demographic characteristics of division chairpersons, and the roles and responsibilities commonly associated with the position. Most of the published literature on chairpersons pertained to baccalaureate-granting institutions.

Baccalaureate Institutions and Community College Department and Division Chairpersons: Distinctions

The researcher considered the literature carefully in order to identify distinctions between the experiences at the baccalaureate institution-level and at the community college-level. The researcher sought to identify these distinctions in order to determine the relevance of the literature to this study. Tucker (1984) provided an overview which appeared to address all levels of higher education. He suggested that there were common characteristics of department chairpersons which could be identified and described. These characteristics were:

> First, as institutions have grown more complex, more decisions are being made by chairpersons. As the basic academic unit, the department is the place where colleges and universities actually conduct the majority of their activities. Decisions made here are difficult to undo elsewhere. Effective leadership and competent administration of the department, therefore, are essential to the sound operation of the institution. Second, the selection of the chairperson is often based more upon academic considerations. . than on his or her management qualifications [election by faculty at baccalaureate-granting institutions and selection by administration at community colleges]. Third, the position of department chairperson is frequently the first rung of the administrative

> ladder. While some department chairpersons will return to their faculty positions, others will aspire to further administrative challenges. Solid grounding in administrative style and techniques early in one's career can play lasting dividends, allowing one to assume additional and more complicated responsibilties. (xi-xii)

Because it described the experience which emerged from the data developed by this study, Tucker's description of these characteristics appeared to be relevant for community college chairpersons. Similar conclusions had been found elsewhere in the literature addressing division chairpersons at community colleges (Koehline and Blocker 1970, Lombardi 1974, Hammons 1984). Additionally, Tucker (1984) found: "Some community colleges have only division chairpersons and some have both division and department chairpersons. The nomenclature varies from one college to another even though the functions of the chairperson may be similar" (p. 30).

The distinction between department chairpersons at four-year colleges and universities and community colleges is more than one of nomenclature. It is one of self-perception and, in many instances, organizational structure. Tucker (1984) suggested that, "In baccalaureate-granting institutions department chairpersons perceive themselves primarily as faculty members with some administrative responsibilties. In community or junior colleges, division chairpersons generally perceive themselves as administrators with some faculty and teaching responsibilities" (p.30). Tucker (1984) also suggested another important distinction between the department chairpersons at a baccalaureate-granting institution and community college division chairpersons. He pointed out that:

> Since university departments are more likely to be pure in the sense that most faculty members have similar training and teach in the same discipline, faculty members of these departments are usually able to reach a consensus in matters of curriculum and department policy without too much difficulty. Community college divisions, on the other hand, usually contain several different and perhaps unrelated programs taught by faculty members with diverse backgrounds. Because of this diversity, division faculty members are likely to have more difficulty in reaching consensus on some issues than members of a pure university department. This may explain in part why department chairpersons who emerge from this type of faculty tend to think of themselves primarily as faculty members rather than as administrators. Community college chairpersons therefore may tend to conduct their division business in somewhat less collegial fashion and to work more closely with administration than chairpersons in four-year institutions. The former seem to have greater opportunity to be involved in college-wide decisions and are expected to serve more as extensions of the administration than as advocates of the faculty. (p. 30)

In summary, the literature indicated that the principal distinctions between the department chairpersons at the baccalaureate-granting institutions and the department/division chairpersons at the community colleges were primarily in : (1) their perception of their roles; (2) the manner of selection (appointment at the community colleges as opposed to election at the baccalaureate-granting institutions); and (3) whether they were faculty or administration, (i.e.) whether their primary accountability was to the department members or the administration. These conclusions are supported by Kellerman (1974) as well as by the findings of several others (Clark, 1984; Baker and Zey-Ferrell, 1982; Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley, 1978; Scheufler, 1973; Ahmann, 1972; Brann, 1972; Underwood, 1972).

Division Chairperson Effectiveness

The literature did not systematically or extensively discuss the factors influencing the effectiveness of division chairpersons, but it did describe the importance of the position, the need for effective leadership at that level, and some of the problems encountered by division chairpersons in attempting to carry out their responsibilities. Koehline and Blocker (1970) suggested that:

> For most community colleges the most effective operational units are divisions and the key to success of the program is in the posi- tion of the division chairman. Just as a dean should properly be regarded as the chief administrator of a part of an institution, the division chairman should be thought of as chief administrator of a division. (p. 10)

Lombardi (1974) observed that they were, "The key to the community college mechanism. . . . If there are not quality people at the division chairman level the organization will not put out quality education" (p.1). Keller (1982) asserted that, "The academic department [division] is the dominant education influence on most campuses" (p. 172). Sheufler (1973) suggested that:

> There is among academic administrators what I can only characterize as universal agreement that the most important single person in the academic world is the department chairman. The department head is the stimulus and goad to dean and faculty alike. He is the pace- setter, the tonesetter, and the curriculum maker. (p. 20)

Presidents, deans, and authorities in the field of higher education management consistently emphasized the importance of division chair- persons, yet studies of department and division chairpersons consis- tently concluded that they were a competent and capable group whose

potential had not been effectively utilized by senior administrators. These studies concluded that to utilize this potential required leadership by their supervisors. Hammons (1983) suggested that, "My experience with over 2000 chairpersons over the past ten years indicates . . all that is needed is help in making them able" (p. 19). Scheufler (1973) made a similar suggestion, "People are ready, willing, and able, and there for the asking if they feel they are part of the operation. However, don't include them, and the gulf between the dean, et al. and them can be measured only in light years" (p. 11). Richman and Farmer (1977) addressed this same issue when they suggested that:

> At a minimum, department heads . . . should be consulted with regularity . . . should be kept informed about what is going on . . should serve as key communications centers in the system. If this is not done, their leadership and managerial status is likely to be seriously undermined and many serious problems can result. (p. 246).

Kemerer and Baldridge (1975) suggested that:

> With tenuous identification with top administration, middle level administrators may be committed only half-heartedly to effective decision making. Middle managers . . . refusing to handle certain responsibilities if the benefits they receive do not outweigh the costs of increasing antagonism and conflict from co-workers. (p. 190).

The literature suggested that the attitude of the dean and the dean's relationship with the division chairperson was an important influence on the effectiveness of division chairpersons. Additionally, the literature suggested that the division chairperson had to satisfy both senior administrators and the faculty. Bennett (1983) suggested that:

> It is difficult to overemphasize the importance of effective communication with the dean. To be effective, however, such communications must be appropriate. One must contrast the wisdom of the maxim "The squeaky wheel gets the grease" with that of "The honking goose gets shot." Timing can play an important role in such judgments. (p. 174)

Scheufler (1973) suggested that, "Probably the most significant problem facing the department chairman . . . is the neglect of the upper echelon administration to recognize fully the importance of the chairman's position" (p. 7). The division chairpersons also must be concerned about the needs and opinions of the faculty. Bennett (1983) suggested that, "Certainly the job does not come without stress, as the chairperson struggles to cope with the traditional ambiguity of the position . . . always to be looking in two directions, mediating the concerns of administration to the faculty and vice versa . . . while trying to maintain some identity and integrity" (pp. 2/3). Dressel (1981) asserted that, "The power and autonomy of administrators are limited by many constituencies . . . a department chairperson may find that administrators at higher levels have to be satisfied and that other constituencies . . . have interest in what they do" (p. 185).

Summary

Although there appears to be consistent support for the need for effective division chairpersons, the literature addressing this subject was limited and generally non-specific. It seldom described effectiveness or how to measure it. The literature did discuss the reasons why effectiveness is important, but did not discuss how it could be in-

creased. In reviewing the literature the researcher identified distinctions between the experiences at the baccalaureate institution-level and at the community college-level in order to determine the relevance of the literature to the study. Distinctions were identified and their implications discussed. The need for effectiveness was also discussed and some of the factors which influenced their effectiveness were identified.

Public Higher Education in Massachusetts

The researcher was the chairperson of a career division at a community college in Massachusetts at the time when the study was completed. He chose to focus this study on chairpersons of career divisions in community colleges in Massachusetts because of his own experience and interest in the area of leadership effectiveness and its relationship to this group, and he desired to study a group of manageable proportions. The researcher's review of the literature and his own experience indicated to him that there was a clear need for effective management and leadership at all levels of higher education in the United States generally and in Massachusetts specifically. Public col- leges and universities in Massachusetts, like higher education institu- tions throughout the nation, have undergone significant changes since the 1960's. The civil rights movement, the war in Vietnam, collective bargaining, financial crises, a decline in public confidence in higher education, and a diminishing cohort of traditional students are some of the forces which have placed strain on higher education institutions,

influenced their organization, policies, and direction, and made effective management essential at all levels.

Development of the Community College System

The present system of public higher education in Massachusetts began a period of expansion and change in 1957 with the leadership of Governor Foster Furcolo. A special commission was established to com- plete an audit of state needs and to make recommendations for action. The first need addressed was public higher education, with special focus upon the development of community colleges.

The special commission recommended the immediate development of a statewide system of regional community colleges. Similar recommendations had been made by other commissions as early as 1911. By 1957 more and more people were seeking an opportunity for higher education. The public system, consisting primarily of teachers' colleges, was not able to accommodate them or meet the personpower needs of the growing industries within the state.

In 1958 authorization for this new system was voted by the Legislature and in 1960 the first community college, Berkshire, was opened. This was followed in 1961 by three additional colleges. By the early 1970's there were 15 colleges. By 1985 they had grown and were beginning what could be a new phase in their development. They began to assume responsibility for some of the post-secondary programs which had developed at the regional vocational technical high schools. They were

increasingly expected to develop long and short term training programs to meet the changing needs of the state, regional, and local economies.

From the very outset the community colleges were planned as multi-purpose institutions. A recruiting pamphlet distributed by the Regional Community College Board in 1963 stated that:

> Community Colleges are not single-purpose institutions and are not to be confused with traditional four-year liberal arts colleges. Their programs are devised to meet diverse individual and regional needs that can be met in two years or less. Two-year programs satisfactorily completed earn the Associate in Arts or Associate in Science degrees.

The colleges initially developed mainly liberal arts and business transfer programs as well as varied career programs, enrolling primarily the traditional college-going population of recent high school graduates. By the late 1960's nearly half of the students were enrolled in career programs, and an increased number of those entering college were older students. By the 1980's the percentage of students enrolled in career programs had significantly increased to the point that more than 70 per cent were enrolled in such programs and the average age of a community college student had risen from 19 to the mid-20's.

The Division Chairpersons: Changes in the Role

The community colleges began with small enrollments and few faculty and staff. As their enrollments grew, so did their staffing. The colleges grew quite rapidly and, in most instances, with little serious concern for internal organization. Most were small enough to be run primarily by the presidents and their deans of academic affairs and

administration. Most were organized into departments and programs, and several also included a divisional structure. The divisions were headed by chairpersons who, in general, perceived themselves to be faculty members with some limited amount of administrative responsibility. This perception was supported by the presidents and deans, who expected little administrative work from the division chairpersons. Also their workload, which usually consisted of at least half of the teaching responsibility of a faculty member, prohibited more administrative duties. The perception was also reinforced by the fact that the position of division chairperson did not officially exist in the state. Chairpersons held faculty rank with a reduction in their instructional workload to carry out their administrative responsibilities. Division chairpersons were given little if any budgetary authority and frequently did not share in policy making to a substantial degree. Although this pattern varied from college to college, and even from division to division, it was generally accurate for the system as a whole.

Even within this context the division chairpersons of career divisions, especially those which were accredited by external agencies, tended to exercise more authority and have more control than did their colleagues in the non-career programs. The specific knowledge and skills required in most career areas and the authority of external accrediting and licensing bodies effectively prevented presidents and deans from exercising the level of control that they were able to exercise in non-career areas.

The year 1974 was significant for community colleges as state employees in Massachusetts were granted the right to bargain collectively

for conditions of employment and wages. By 1975 unit determination petitions, essentially seeking to clarify which categories of employees would be eligible to be part of a collective-bargaining unit, were filed with the Massachusetts Labor Relations Commission. This agency had the legal authority to make such a determination. Prior to that time, state employees in Massachusetts had not had the right to bargain. Personnel policies in the community college system, at that time, were minimal, inconsistent, and inconsistently interpreted and applied. By 1976 the petitions had been decided, bargaining units were formed, and the first collective-bargaining agreement was signed. One of the results of the creation of collective-bargaining units was that division chairpersons at community colleges were declared to be management and thus not part of the faculty unit. The decision took note of the fact that not all community colleges had the same structure. Some had no division chairpersons and some had no departments, only divisions. (SCR-11 et al. Footnote 16, p. 1431).

This decision marked the beginning of a realignment of and rationale for the organizational structures at the community colleges. It became very clear that first-line administrators were needed to implement the collective-bargaining agreement, especially in the areas of evaluation and workload. This was also the beginning of a period of turmoil, personal reflection, and self-assessment for many division chairpersons who had accepted the positions at a time when they were considered to be faculty positions. They saw themselves as faculty members who were primus inter pares, first among equals, rather than as administrators. Over the next three years organizational structures were

changed throughout the system and many division chairpersons returned to their faculty positions. But many remained. Of that remaining group, a large number continued to have ambivalent feelings and were unclear about their roles. Alexander found this to be a fairly consistent issue as late as 1980 (Alexander, 1981, p. 54). This continued ambivalence may have reflected a lack of clarity or an ambivalence on the part of the presidents and academic deans.

By the late 1970's and early 1980's the Massachusetts community colleges had undergone substantial expansion since the first college opened in 1960, in terms of the number of colleges and the number of students. They had become much more complex and comprehensive, offering an increased number of career programs and doing so often on more than one campus. Some colleges developed satellite facilities. At the same time collective bargaining was being implemented the new managerial position of division chairperson was created. Many of the division chairpersons under the old system left their positions and returned to faculty positions, but many who remained were involved in a process of redefinition. They had been faculty and their preparation was as scholars and teachers. They were now expected to function as supervisors, program developers, budgeters, grantpersons, and contract implementers. Because the system lacked a strong central authority and the faculty union needed time to grasp and clarify the issues that it needed to address, the changes brought by collective bargaining were not uniformly felt throughout the system. Thus change occurred at a varied pace throughout the 15 college system.

Reorganization of Public Higher Education

In June of 1980 another major change occurred in public higher education when the Massachusetts Board of Regents of Higher Education was created by legislative act. This reorganization marked a significant departure from the previous governance structure for public higher education in Massachusetts. As the Board stated (MBRHE, 1982):

> The creation of the Massachusetts Board of Regents by legislative act in June 1980 marked a major departure from a loosely coordinated system of higher education which had been in place since 1965. The new public system created by Chapter 15A embodies a juxtaposition of a central governing board with strong budgetary and programatic authority with individual boards of trustees clearly intended to have substantial responsibility for management and administration of individual institutions. No other state of comparable size and complexity in higher education has yet given this degree of central authority and responsibility for all post-secondary education in the public sector to a single governing board. (p. 1)

This reorganization was the result of many factors, among them the desire of many in state government and in the private sector to make public higher education more responsive to the economic needs of the state. As the Board of Regents (1982) stated, "Public higher education does not exist in isolation. . . . It is influenced by and must be, in part, a response to the economic and social trends confronting Massachusetts and the nation. The economic base has been altered; demographic features are changing" (p. 6). The Board concluded by stating, "Public higher education cannot solve all of the problems brought about by change but rather should be viewed as an integral part of the problem-solving process" (p. 7).

By 1985 the community colleges in Massachusetts had become a 15

college system with an estimated enrollment of more than 100,000 students in credit and non-credit courses in the day division and the division of continuing education. Table 3 portrays this growth for one segment of the college enrollment, the state-supported credit courses or (day division).

The System had retained the focus which had been established when it was founded and the colleges had become multi-purpose institutions. Career education in the form of degrees, certificates, or short-term training programs were developed in response to the needs of each service area. Massachusetts in the later 1970's and 1980's was the center of the high tech boom which demanded trained manpower. Additionally the focus on retraining and the shortage of manpower made it imperative for the community colleges to develop the necessary training. The implementation of collective bargaining had a similarly profound effect upon the organization of the community colleges. A divisional structure was created at all of the colleges and by 1985 there were more than 80 division chairpersons, approximately equally divided between career and non-career divisions. Most of the division chairpersons had become 12-month administrators in response to the increased workload. Even those who remained on 10-month administrative contracts found themselves working during the month of January and for several weeks in June, July and August.

Table 3

Community College Day Division Enrollment Figures 1960-1985

COMMUNITY COLLEGE CHART:

Enrollment figures below reflect a head count compiled by the Board of Regents staff for the day division only

Year	No. of colleges	State funds spent	Enrollment
1960	1	$25,000	152
1965	9	$3 million	5,980
1970	13	$14 million	18,911
1985	15	$100 million	38,554

Chart above shows the growth of community college budgets and enrollments since their beginning.

Note. From "Giving students, industry what they need" by Marty Carlock, April 6, 1986, Boston Globe, p. B19.

Divisions of Continuing Education and Community Services

Part of the response of the community colleges to the needs of the community was the development of large and complex divisions of continuing education and community services. These units, as noted earlier, essentially organized the evening, weekend, and summer programs with a primary focus on career education, non-credit courses, manpower training, and other non-traditional programming. Each institution organized these divisions differently, but one common feature was that by state law they had to be operated at no cost to the regular state budget. In effect, if a person was enrolled in a class that met between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 4:30 p.m., Monday-Friday, during the fall or spring semesters, their education was directly subsidized by the state

by setting tuitions which, on average, cover less than 30 per cent of the cost of educating each student. Whereas, in the divisions of continuing education and community services, tuitions and fees had to generate sufficient revenue to fund the divisions' operating costs. The degree to which divisions of continuing education were separated from state funded personnel and programs varied at each college, but one could conclude that they were not completely self-supporting. Because of the separation in funding, the organizational issues which developed effectively created a separate college or unit on each campus. Historically, they were operated with a great deal of autonomy, organizationally under the direction of a dean who reported to the president. Although some institutional organization charts may indicate that the deans of continuing education report to the deans of academic affairs or someone else, in reality, the college presidents have maintained direct control. This is the area of each community college which has the greatest amount of organizational, programatic, and financial flexibility. This flexibility provides presidents with the ability to move their institutions quickly to respond to community needs. The day division, tends to move much less quickly, given financial and contractual limitations on the use of personnel.

The colleges became increasingly involved in educational programs which were not in the traditional degree or certificate mode and were offered at times other than during the traditional fall and spring semesters. These so-called non-traditional programs responded to community needs and the mandates of the reorganization of higher education. They also provided the colleges with an opportunity to generate revenue

that they could keep for their own use. Tuitions paid by students to attend state-funded programs, i.e., day division programs had to be returned to the state treasury. Unlike the division of continuing education and community services, the "day" college was financed through a separate state appropriation. These division of continuing of continuing education and community services revenues were retained by the colleges for uses consistent with state law and approved by their respective boards of trustees.

The need to develop new programs and courses has frequently required the active involvement and leadership of the division chairpersons in the divisions of continuing education and community services. Previously, division chairpersons and faculty had had little responsibility for continuing education other than possibly to help in selecting instructors, ordering books, and advising at the request of the dean of continuing education and community services. This assistance was generally provided without any additional compensation, and seldom, if ever, during the summer. One result of this increased involvement was that the division chairpersons had to give a substantial amount of time to continuing education and community services. In some instances they gave up teaching courses in order to find the time. In other instances these responsibilities were one of the considerations in their being made 12-month administrators, thus making them available through-out the year. This change did not occur uniformly, nor did it occur at all colleges. By 1985 about two-thirds of the division chairpersons had become 12-month employees and many who were not had been told that they would

have a choice to either work 12 months or return to their faculty positions.

Summary

The community college system in Massachusetts was created in 1958 and initiated in 1960 with the opening of the first community college. The system was created to serve multiple purposes in response to the needs of the community. By 1985 the system had evolved to the point where there were 15 colleges and over 100,000 students enrolled each year. This evolution had previously been discussed in a 1973 study by the Massachusetts Advisory Council on Education. The study pointed to the fact that, "Public higher education in the Commonwealth has made other dramatic gains in the past few years: Many of its community colleges are strengthening their ties to the communities served and are continuing to expand their occupational programs" (p. 83). The report went on to stress that: "The community colleges continue to emphasize career development and continuing education; the special role of the community college in mobilizing community resources of educational and cultural purposes must be kept at the forefront" (p. 94).

By 1982 the mission of the community colleges as the provider of career education had been clearly established. The 1982 Long Range Plan of the Board of Regents stated:

> Common to all community colleges is a commitment to excellence of academic instruction . . . innovative educational programs of high quality for all persons in the Commonwealth. . . . Furthermore, the community colleges link the academic community with the profes-

> sions, business, industry and human service agencies by identifying their needs and developing appropriate programs to respond to them. (pp. 19/20)

The evolution of the community college system to a greater career orientation occurred by direction, and by necessity, but not without trauma. Colleges with large traditional liberal arts and general education areas added the necessary expertise to develop career programs. They accomplished this by reallocating existing resources and seeking additional resources. This change required leadership and commitment at all levels, but especially at the critical level of division chairperson, without which many initiatives and innovations would not have been conceived, developed, or implemented. Change can be initiated and directed from the top, but it must be accomplished at the bottom. In this case the level was the division chairperson and faculty. As Tucker (1984) suggested, "A key position in the hierarchy of college and university administration is that of department [division] chairperson for it is the chairperson who must supervise the translation of institutional goals into academic practice" (xiii).

By 1985 the community colleges employed thousands of professionals, supervised through a divisional structure headed by division chairpersons. Those academic leaders had initially been members of the faculty who had some limited administrative responsibility. With their involvement in division of continuing education and community services programs, collective bargaining, the expansion of the colleges, and the increased demand for services, they became administrators, most frequently employed on a 12-month administrative contract.

The colleges remained multi-purpose and they developed increased numbers of career programs. By 1985 more than 75 per cent of the students were enrolled in career programs. If new programs were to be developed, quality control maintained, and the college was to be responsive to community needs, this change made the effectiveness of the chairperson, especially chairpersons of career divisions, even more important to the success of the college.

CHAPTER V

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study has been to identify salient factors influencing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education and to develop recommendations that will reinforce conditions contributing to effectiveness and alter conditions found to be inhibiting effectiveness. Chairpersons of career divisions in the Massachusetts Community College System were studied.

This chapter presents and analyzes the case data that were collected from the interviews of the 10 divisions chairpersons, three academic deans, and three faculty members of career divisions who were sampled, using an interview guide and tape-recording the interviews; and the data collected from the written questionnaire completed by the 10 division chairpersons. Additionally, the researcher where it provided furthur insight, has included his observations of division chairpersons in several settings, such as the monthly meetings of the State Council of Division Chairpersons, conferences for division chairpersons, and from introspective consideration of his day-to-day experiences as chairperson of a career division.

The case data were organized and classified into a case record using the research questions and the interview guide as a framework. The data from the written questionnaire and the interviews were tabulated to assist the researcher in completing the data analysis and in-

terpretation. The data developed for the case record were the basis of data that have been presented.

The researcher completed the concentrated analysis of the interview data by reading the pages of notes, quotations, and ideas as well as by reviewing the tables which he had developed in creating the case record. While reviewing the data, he searched carefully to identify categories, themes, and patterns that emerged from the data. These categories, themes, and patterns are described in the analysis of the data.

Presentation of the Data

The case data have been presented following the format of the research questions and the interview guides. The responses to more than one interview question were similar in the interviews of the faculty and the academic deans; therefore, the researcher made the decision to combine the responses in the analysis. Additionally, the observational data has been incorporated.

Reasons for Seeking Division Chairpersonship

Motivation has been shown to be important in the management process. It was therefore important to understand what motivated leaders as well as understanding what motivated followers. It was important too, to understand why the division chairpersons had sought their jobs, because it would provide insight into understanding the division chairpersons' expectations, their perspectives, and their attitudes toward

their jobs. Leaders, as with followers, will work at a higher level of their ability if they are highly motivated. Because motivation is important and because leaders are also motivated by a desire to self-actualize, it was important to understand why each division chairperson had sought his/her job. Leaders who are highly motivated provide a role-model and project their enthusiasm in a manner that can positively affect the management process.

The division chairpersons unanimously indicated that their primary reason for seeking, and in many instances remaining in, their position was that they viewed the division chair position as a key point at which the policies and programs of their college could be influenced and shaped. The division chairpersons viewed it as an opportunity to implement many of their ideas in ways which would have much more impact than they could have as classroom teachers or as department chairpersons/program coordinators. This included development of new programs, implementation of quality control, hiring and supporting faculty, and other similar and related opportunities. They also agreed that the diversity of their responsibilities and the autonomy of their positions had attracted them and kept them in their positions. Although there was a great deal of routine to their jobs, it was their opinion that they also had the opportunity to vary their activities, meet new people, get off campus to meetings, and take the initiative in areas of interest or in areas where a need had been identified.

In discussing the reasons for initially seeking the position, one division chairperson said, "What I like is being innovative. Working in continuing education. You can make changes in this job and be continu-

ally different." Another said simply, "I feel that change is possible if the right person is in the job." And another said, "It's really tough to get bored in this job. You know, there's always so much happening and so much to do. This is where the action is!"

Many of the division chairpersons interviewed said that they applied for and accepted their position because it was an opportunity to improve their financial situation. As one chairperson noted, "You know, I figured I might enjoy administration and it was going to take forever to make any money because I was the junior member of my division." Another noted, "I held a similar position at another college. I saw this as a broadening of responsibility and a definite career move."

Salaries of division chairpersons have substantially improved since the on-set of collective bargaining and the determination that the position was part of management. The salary range during 1983-1986 was $22,000-$45,000 and $26,000-$48,000 for 10 and 12-month persons respectively. A survey completed in 1985, indicated that the average salary of all division chairpersons was about $36,000. In some instances individual college policies allowed division chairpersons with 10-month contracts to be paid additional compensation for work performed during July and August. At some colleges a system of compensatory time was developed in lieu of additional salary. A survey conducted by the State Council of Division Chairpersons indicated a definite trend at most colleges to place division chairpersons on 12-month contracts. When such a change occurred, it was found that division chairpersons were generally paid an additional 20% of their 10 month salary. This move to 12 months was uneven, though. Factors apparently influencing the decision in-

cluded: philosophy of the college, nature of the division (career division chairpersons were more likely to have 12-month contracts), and to some extent the wishes of those currently holding the position. By October of 1985 about two-thirds of all division chairpersons had 12-month contracts, and most others indicated that if they left their position it would become a 12-month position. This move to 12-month positions, although it offered increased compensation, forced many division chairpersons, especially in non-career areas, to reassess their desire to remain in administration. This clearly affected their life-styles and made the positions even more administrative.

A similar situation had developed in 1975 and 1976 with the determination that division chairpersons were administrators, and the consequent major changes in their roles. They moved from the positions of peer and first among equals, to supervisors. At that time many chairpersons chose to return to their faculty positions, mostly as senior faculty members with the rank of Associate Professor or Professor. They saw either a change in life-styles and/or self-perceptions or simply no financial incentives for assuming this difficult administrative position. At that time, and until at least the late 1970's, there was not an administrative salary schedule for division chairpersons. In many instances there was no change in salary, but in responsibility. They gave up teaching for administrative responsibility. As many left their positions, colleges reorganized divisions. Many junior faculty were appointed division chairpersons. In other instances persons were hired from outside the college. In the early years of collective bargaining the position was not eagerly sought by faculty, and seldom by senior

faculty. This was because of the lack of financial incentives, the adversarial and judgmental nature of many of their responsibilities, and the lack of prestige of the position at many colleges.

Most/Least Enjoyable Responsibilities

The researcher believed that it was important to determine whether there was a relationship between the reasons why the division chairpersons initially sought their positions, their reasons for remaining in their position, their expectations, and the responsibilities which they considered to be most/least enjoyable to them. The researcher believed that one finds enjoyment in those activities which they believe assist them in achieving their goals; and, conversely that they find less enjoyable those activities which they do not believe assist them in achieving their goals. The researcher therefore reasoned that one would be more highly motivated, more productive, and more effective when one is involved in activities which they enjoy; and, that they are less motivated, less productive, and less effective when they are involved in activities which they do not enjoy. It was important therefore to determine which of their responsibilities the division chairpersons considered to be most and least enjoyable.

The unanimous opinion of the division chairpersons was that developing new programs was the most enjoyable part of their job. Those who taught, and seven of the 10 did teach at least one section each semester, indicated that they enjoyed teaching and believed that it was important that they continue to teach. They viewed their teaching as

one way to remain in contact with students and to be attuned to their needs and interests. In their opinion, teaching also gave them credibility with the faculty and allowed them to serve as role-models. Most of those interviewed who continued to teach, believed that it was becoming increasingly difficult for them to continue to teach because of the increased demands on their time from their administrative responsibilities. In their judgment they were not able to prepare their classes as well as they would like nor spend as much time helping their students. Most believed that it would only be a matter of time before they would have to give up teaching as their respective deans of academic affairs preferred that they not teach in order that they focus on their administrative responsibilities. One noted that, "You know, it's really inevitable. I love teaching, but I really can't keep it up. There's too much other responsibility. I'm not doing anything as well as I want." Another said,

> I really love teaching, but I can only do it if I take the preparation time out of my own personal time. The President wants me to put my time into doing the administrative work, developing new programs, quality control. I'll probably have to give it up soon. But I really don't want to.

The division chairpersons also shared an enjoyment of problem-solving. It was their unanimous opinion that problem-solving was one of the parts of their job that made it exciting and personally rewarding. The problem-solving could range from mediating a disagreement between a faculty member and a student, to designing a new curriculum. Although frequently frustrating, it provided an opportunity to gain some feelings of success, satisfaction and frequently accomplishment. One division

chairperson said, "I enjoy creating a system that works well. Debugging a system that has its own conflicts within it. Another said, "I enjoy working with faculty to meet their needs, solve problems, and achieve life goals because this is an important part of their teaching."

All of the division chairpersons indicated that they derived a great deal of satisfaction and enjoyment from working with faculty to improve the faculty members' instructional effectiveness. One noted,

> I am a developmentalist. I enjoy working with faculty members especially the newer ones to improve their teaching. I can often say, "You know, I had a situation like that and what I did was." That's not threatening and it often helps a lot. I really feel good when I see improvement.

The enjoyment and interest in working with faculty to improve instruction was qualified somewhat by a unanimous dislike for working with some faculty. These were especially those in high faculty ranks, i.e. tenured professors, who, in the opinion of the division chairpersons, did not want to do anything to change, improve, or contribute to the overall success of the college. One division chairperson said,

> There are several lazy faculty members who feel that they are overworked and underpaid. They are tenured so it's impossible to get them to do things they don't want to do. If I had more new people they would do more work and get into new areas. It's attitudes. Faculty get into ruts. The institution creates ruts for people. Its called ruts."

Related to this was a unanimous dislike of getting involved in taking disciplinary action against a faculty member or having to make decisions which, although necessary, would result in a confrontation with a faculty member. An example of the latter might be a very critical evaluation or changing a faculty member's teaching assignment.

The division chairpersons indicated that the repetitive parts of their job, including scheduling, faculty evaluations, and meetings were the least enjoyable. Some believed that some or much of what they were doing i.e. "paperwork," was not necessary and that their time could be better utilized in the more positive areas which they enjoyed. These areas were faculty support, program development, recruiting of students and faculty, problem-solving, and advising students. They accepted the paperwork as part of their jobs and as a trade-off for being able to do the things they enjoyed most. They also indicated that they tried to get through those tasks as quickly as possible in order to spend time on what they enjoyed. The researcher observed that the division chairpersons at their own colleges and in the State Council of Division Chairpersons had also worked hard over the years to influence those sections of the collective-bargaining agreement i.e. faculty evaluation, workload, which caused their jobs to be less enjoyable.

Even though they recognized that these less enjoyable responsibilities would continue, all of the interviewees indicated that they intended to remain in administration. They would remain either in the same position or in a higher administrative position. Most indicated a desire to move to other institutions in order to move up, or possibly to move out of higher education if they had good opportunities.

Most Important Responsibilities

The researcher sought to identify what the chairpersons of career divisions believed to be their most important responsibilities. He

sought too, to identify what the deans and faculty believed to be the most important responsibilities of chairpersons of career divisions. The researcher believed that this data would provide an indication of the degree of congruence among these three groups whose interaction in the management process, based upon their perceptions of these responsibilities, would influence the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions.

The division chairpersons agreed on their top three to five responsibilities. In their opinion their most important responsibility was to support and work closely with the faculty in their divisions. Support included: necessary supplies and equipment, sound class schedules, good classroom space, staff development opportunities, problem-solving and anything else necessary to create a positive and supportive work environment.

They rated the development of new programs and quality control of new and existing programs as important responsibilities. As one division chairperson noted,

> As an institution we have a lot of different responsibilities. None of them is more important than providing students with the best quality education that we can possibly provide. It is our responsibility to work with the faculty and get them the resources to make that happen.

In their opinion in order to be successful in carrying out this responsibility, it was important for them to work closely with the faculty. Faculty involvement was essential if new programs were to be developed and quality control maintained. The involvement of the faculty usually had to be voluntary, given their workload and the limits imposed by the

collective-bargaining agreement. In the opinion of the division chairpersons, it was essential for the college to provide a positive and supportive work environment which would encourage and support faculty involvement. One division chairperson suggested that, "What the President should say is, 'What do you people need to make the faculty happy? Do you know what the faculty need?'" That same division chairperson went on to say, "They [the faculty] need to feel that they have power, and that they are appreciated." Another said, "You need to get people involved so that the people feel that they are doing things which they want to do, which you want them to do." It was also suggested that the key was, "Make them feel better about what they do and why they do it. Also get them to keep growing." Another summarized by declaring that, "The presidents and the deans should make it an obvious priority to consider the needs of the faculty and staff."

The division chairpersons viewed maintaining a positive relationship with the faculty as an important responsibility. If they had strong, positive relationships with the faculty they could overcome obstacles created by workloads, staffing, or collective-bargaining contracts. They believed that it was critical to have the time to nurture strong personal relationships so that they could motivate and gain the support of the faculty in doing the things needed to expand, change, and improve programs. Time spent in developing and maintaining good relationships, in their judgment, was a wise investment that paid consistent dividends. One chairperson said,

> Well, it's really important to know who has how many kids or what's happening in people's lives. That's important to them. They need to know that you care and that you are available other than in

> formal settings. It really helps in getting over rough spots and getting help and understanding when you need it.

Another chairperson said,

> The challenge is to get people to be the best that they can be. Must spend a lot of time with them and let them know you care and recognize them. If they do well, the students are better served and the college does well.

A final opinion, and one which reflected that of many was, "I work hard to get the people to work for me and to see that the things I want them to do are in their interest, so they will get more involved and put more energy into it." The interviewees indicated that their biggest difficulty in developing and maintaining these important relationships was a lack of time. They consistently expressed a desire and a need for more time to spend working with the faculty. They unanimously agreed that one place where that needed time could be found was in the time required to implement the collective-bargaining agreement.

Implementation of the collective-bargaining agreement was not directly addressed very often by the division chairpersons. The interviewees consistently reiterated the opinion that one particular article of the agreement, the multi-part evaluation process carried out each semester by the division chairpersons, was both time-consuming and important. Some elements of the annual evaluation process had to be completed each semester for all full-time faculty and professional staff. Other elements had to be completed only during the fall semester. Additionally, at some colleges, this process which included an evaluation of course materials, and a class-

room observation also had to be completed for part-time faculty, who, although not included in a bargaining unit, were held to most of the same standards as full-time faculty. The intent of this process was to provide data which were considered in making decisions involving reappointment, tenure, promotion, and sabbatical leave, as well as hopefully to improve instruction by providing the faculty with recommendations for improvement.

The division chairpersons and other administrators, as well as the faculty, consistently expressed concern about the evaluation process. For the division chairpersons the time involved created serious problems. For those division chairpersons who had a large number of faculty members to evaluate it was particularly difficult. It was estimated by some that it could take up to 10 hours each semester to complete all components of the evaluation process for one full-faculty member and up to six hours for a part-time person. In divisions of 20 or more faculty members, especially those with a high percentage of full-time persons and/or off-campus clinical instruction, more than one half of all of their work time in a semester could be taken up by this one responsibility.

During the 1984/1985 and 1985/1986 academic years, the State Council of Division Chairpersons worked closely with the Council of Academic Deans and management's bargaining team in an effort to change this provision of the new collective-bargaining agreement, which was due to take effect in July of 1986. Their goal was to simplify and limit the frequency of evaluations, as well as to improve the instruments, so that they could have more time to do a more effective eval-

uation. This would also free up time to devote to other areas of responsibility, especially curriculum and staff development, or simply being accessible to the faculty and students. The division chairpersons took the responsibility for evaluation very seriously. Therefore they sought to influence the collective-bargaining process so that they could do their entire job more effectively. There were also other areas of the collective bargaining agreement which caused concern for the division chairpersons, such as faculty workload, but their major concentration was on the evaluation process. They indicated that if they were successful, they would continue to work on a state-wide basis to influence other practices in order to try to create a better work environment and more effective policies and procedures.

The interviewees also shared the opinion that they had an important responsibility to be aware of broad college goals in order to provide leadership for their divisions. This opinion was tempered by an acknowledgment that they had the dual responsibilities of working as a part of an administrative team and advocating for the needs of their respective divisions. It was their responsibility to "educate" their respective deans of academic affairs and other key individuals about the goals and needs of their respective divisions. This would allow them to get their fair and needed shares of the college's resources as well as influence policy decisions impacting upon their divisions.

It was essential for the division chairpersons to have a good working relationship with the dean of academic affairs. One division

chairperson summarized the prevailing opinion by stating, "It is absolutely essential that I have the support of the Dean of Academic Affairs." Another division chairperson said, "I must depend heavily on the Dean of Academic Affairs. I can be most effective when I control the resources and can develop alternatives. If the Dean controls the resources, I am dependant on him. It can be very frustrating." That person went on to say, "I must be able to count on consistency from the Dean in terms of the level of autonomy which I have to make decisions. The support of the President, but more importantly the Dean, is important in encouraging risk-taking." Another division chairperson said, "It is clear that the support of the President, and especially the Dean, are very important. It they don't support a budget, personnel, or program proposal, it doesn't happen."

In the opinion of the division chairpersons, the most important element in this relationship was trust. In was critical, in their opinion, that the dean trust and have confidence in them; otherwise their recommendations would not get serious consideration and they in turn would not be very effective advocates for their divisions. In a similar vein, they viewed it as important for them to have credibility with other decision-makers and opinion-makers, both on and off-campus, who could provide support for their division. This opinion was best stated by one division chairperson who said,

> External factors also influence your attitude and effectiveness. It is important to know that your peers share your perspective about what is best for the institution. I might never have tried some things for fear of being alone.

The division chairpersons expressed the opinion that their role was that of a bridge between the faculty and the administration. In this role they had a responsibility to communicate the concerns, perceptions, and needs of the faculty to senior administrators while keeping the faculty informed about developments, policies, and procedures which affected them. As one division chairperson said, "We must interpret the administration to the faculty and the faculty to the administration. We're caught in the middle. But it's really an important responsibility if we're going to get things done and done well."

A final responsibility which some interviewees viewed as important was work in the division of continuing education. The degree to which division chairpersons were responsible for continuing education programs varied from college to college, given the institutional organization, past practices, and areas of concentration within the college. It was clear though, from the interviews as well as from surveys and discussions both at the State Council of Division Chairpersons and in other settings, that this responsibility was increasing across the system, especially in career divisions. All of the division chairpersons saw it coming and expressed similarly ambivalent feelings. On the one hand they viewed it as exciting and challenging. One person noted that, "This college needs to be flexible. We need to respond when something is needed out there. That's why DCE is so good." Another said,

> My vision is that our mission is to meet the needs of the underrepresented and disadvantaged. That is what I want. This col-

> lege is the greatest opportunity for social change that our area has. It is a ladder that provides economic, social, and other mobility. It can effect political change. DCE is a great vehicle to accomplish this.

Another division chairperson summarized by saying,"My vision is a continuously evolving and changing series of programs to respond, to do so. That's why DCE is so great. No union to strangle creativity. If you can generate the dollars, you can do it."

While many expressed excitement, they also expressed the concern that they just did not have the time to do what was needed and that they would not get the additional help needed to do the job. In the opinion of many, the rapid movement to 12-month contracts and the elimination of teaching responsibilities was an effort by the deans and the presidents to get the time for division chairpersons to be involved in continuing education. About half of them expressed concern that they were going to have to give up something that they enjoyed and valued - teaching and summers off - for something which was interesting, but not necessarily as valuable to them personally.

The faculty members agreed with the division chairpersons. In the opinion of the faculty members the most important responsibilities of the division chairpersons were to:

- Provide timely help to any faculty members who needed it to do their jobs better.
- Be accessible and available when the faculty need help or someone to talk with about a concern.
- Help to solve problems that develop, i.e., obtaining proper classroom space, or funds for materials, etc..
- Involve the faculty in planning and decisions that will affect them.

- Advocate for the faculty and the division, especially with the dean of academic affairs.

- Provide the faculty with the information that they need to do their jobs, and to provide it in a timely fashion.

- Motivate the faculty (doing the above would help to motivate the faculty).

- Understand programs within the division in order to be better able to get the necessary support and to provide a positive image for the program.

The faculty members unanimously agreed that division chairpersons had a re sponsibility to carry out certain administrative responsibilities, including faculty evaluation. They expected these responsibilities, such as promotion recommendations, merit increases (salary), sabbatical leave recommendations, reappointment and tenure recommendations, and evaluation to be carried out in a fair and professional manner. In the case of evaluation their opinion was that if it had to be done as the collective-bargaining agreement mandated, it should be done in a way that helped the faculty to improve. The faculty unanimously agreed that in order to carry out this responsibility effectively, the division chairperson should have had teaching experience, preferably at the community college level and in the discipline being evaluated. One faculty member noted, "They really need to know how to teach and know the subject matter if they are going to do a credible job evaluating or be of help."

The opinion of the faculty members was unanimous that deans did not value the importance of the division chairperson's loyalty or support for the faculty as much as they valued getting administrative tasks done on time. In fact, some faculty members said that the dean

might question the loyalty of the division chairpersons if they strongly advocated for the faculty. One unanimous opinion, in the words of one faculty member, was, "Look, all the deans really care about is that the administrative work is done on time. They may care about faculty feelings, but the bottom line is that the division chair's got to get the job done."

The interviews with the deans of academic affairs demonstrated a substantial amount of agreement with the opinions of the division chairpersons and the faculty. The deans of academic affairs also expressed an awareness and understanding of the need for positive interpersonal relations and the need to motivate the faculty. The deans generally agreed that it was a top priority for the division chairpersons to implement the collective-bargaining agreement, especially the evaluation article, and to do so in a timely and consistent fashion. But they also expressed support for the contention that it was important for the division chairperson to advocate for their divisions as well as being an important source of information and advice for the deans. One dean, expressing an opinion that was echoed by the other deans said, "We can have a lot of discussion. Disagreements. I want people to speak their minds. I want managers who get the job done. Make things happen. Who get me information when I need it. Are part of a management team."

The deans viewed the division chairpersons as the academic leaders of their divisions; the division chairpersons were responsible for keeping the area running smoothly, making decisions, solving problems, and developing new programs. The deans expected the division

chairpersons to be self-directed and to work well without close supervision, but they also expected them to check in with them periodically and to know enough to seek advice on issues or when to refer them to the dean for action.

The deans believed that the faculty did not understand the importance of the role of the division chairperson. The deans also believed that division chairpersons were absolutely essential for the success of their colleges, but that the faculty would be just as happy if they did not exist, except in those instances when they were doing something of obvious assistance to the faculty. When the researcher probed in his questioning and asked the deans' opinion of why the faculty perceived the division chairpersons in this way, and whether the deans could do anything to change this perception, some deans indicated that if they could get more support for the division chairpersons it might help. Better office space, a smaller division, and better secretarial support were suggested as some of the types of support that would help. One dean suggested involving the division chairpersons in decision-making and delegating more responsibility would help. While the others indicated that they provided such support, but that division chairpersons had to decide whether they were faculty or administrators and where their loyalty was. One dean said,

> I don't have a problem, but I've heard from some other deans that there is a question of the loyalty of division chairpersons. They've got to make up their minds that they can't have the same relationship with the faculty that they had when they were also faculty members. It goes with the territory.

The deans agreed that some of the problems that division chairpersons might have were inherent in any first-line management position and in any hierarchical organization. They agreed, too, that in fact, administrative tasks had to be done. Often deadlines were essential because they were set by the agreement. In this latter case, failure to meet deadlines could jeopardize management's position on many issues. In other instances the deadlines were either externally imposed, or necessary for others to complete their work in a timely fashion.

Criteria of Effectiveness

The researcher believed that it was important to identify the criteria which the division chairpersons used to determine whether, in their opinion, they had done their jobs effectively. The researcher sought too, to determine whether there was congruence among the criteria used by the division chairpersons, the deans, and the faculty. These data were important because they provided further insights into what each group expected from the division chairpersons, as well as providing a basis for considering changes that needed to be made to increase the division chairpersons' effectiveness.

All of the division chairpersons defined effectiveness in terms of getting the job done or achieving their objectives. One division chairperson defined effectiveness as, "The dynamic process of getting things done." Another described it as, "Getting what you want done, in the way that you want to, taking into consideration institutional goals."

They all agreed that they considered the success, failure, and availability of the programs in their divisions to be measures of their effectiveness. If the programs had adequate enrollments and they were of high quality, then the division chairpersons considered themselves to be effective. The criteria that they applied to judge program quality included: accreditation by external agencies, the placement rate of graduates, the success of graduates on external licensing or registry exams, the opinion of employers of graduates, and the opinions of current students and graduates. If their divisions were seen as being successful, they believed that they were effective because it was their primary responsibility to provide the leadership and support needed for the faculty and students to do the best job that they possibly could. One division chairperson summarized this opinion by saying, "If the programs are successful in attracting students. If the students are getting jobs. If there's quality instruction. Then I am effective."

The division chairpersons also valued the opinion and/or evaluations of their supervisors, the deans of academic affairs, and the faculty in assessing their effectiveness. Each one indicated that the annual evaluation by the dean of academic affairs was one of the criteria that they considered in measuring their own effectiveness. Another criterion that the division chairpersons used to measure their effectiveness was the reaction of the faculty and others on campus with whom they worked, and whose cooperation they needed to be effective. One division chairperson said, "I measure my effectiveness, in part, by the reaction of the dean and, just as important, the faculty. If they are not happy nothing gets done."

Another consideration of the division chairpersons in measuring their effectiveness was the degree to which they were, in their judgment, respected by and be seen as credible by all of those persons and groups with whom they had to work. Their most common definition of credibility was believability and trustworthiness. Others needed to be able to believe in them and to trust them if they were to get the cooperation necessary to span the gaps among administrative units, between administration and faculty, and among individuals. One division chairperson's statement summarized the opinion of all the others by saying, "I feel that my credibility in the eyes of the faculty and administration is crucial to my effectiveness. If I am credible, I am effective. If I'm not, I'm not."

The division chairpersons expressed a desire to do their jobs to the best of their abilities, and they held themselves accountable for effectively completing their responsibilities. The majority opinion was that they were not really held accountable by their supervisors, except for the highest priorities. One division chairperson said,

> I'm not really held accountable by the Dean for most things. Unless there is something the Dean has strong feelings about, I'm the only one who holds me accountable for what I get done and how I get it done.

The division chairpersons felt comfortable about taking risks. The fear of failure did not appear to have a significant impact upon how they approached their jobs. They did not believe that their jobs were in jeopody if they failed at times. In fact, most of them believed that their initiative, personal standards, and expectations had a greater effect on

their performance than their expectations of being held accountable by their supervisors. Many, especially those in large divisions considered their responsibilities to be so broad and varied, and the support that they received was so limited, that the dean could not reasonably hold them accountable if they failed in completing or succeeding with some, or even many, of their responsibilities. In fact, in the opinion of many of the division chairpersons, although the deans of academic affairs had some ideas of the skills and efforts required to do the division chairpersons' jobs, the deans provided little in the way of financial rewards, or other forms of recognition for excellent performance or a high level of effectiveness.

The faculty generally concurred with the criteria used by the division chairpersons to measure their own effectiveness, although none of them mentioned the evaluation by the deans of academic affairs. Given the faculty's opinions in other areas, it could reasonably be inferred that they would also consider the dean's evaluation of the division chairpersons to be important. The possibility that a division chairperson could be effective in the dean's opinion, but ineffective in the opinion of the faculty could be inferred, also. It seems reasonable, too, to infer that the division chairpersons would agree with these opinions, especially when one considers their criteria and definitions of effectiveness and their prioritization of their responsibilities.

The faculty shared the opinion that to be effective, division chairpersons needed to share information and involve faculty in planning and change. In fact, one faculty member expressed the opinion that on-going change was, "absolutely essential" and that, "One measure of

the effectiveness of a division chairperson is the degree to which they are able to involve faculty and gain their support for change." To get this involvement it was considered to be very important, to have earned the trust of the faculty. This trust could be earned in several ways. One important way was to obtain the resources and support that the faculty considered were needed to do their jobs. This could include financial and material resources, promotions for the faculty, desirable teaching schedules, or anything else deemed necessary for the faculty or program of instruction to be successful. One faculty member suggested that "A high trust level, credibility, is very important to help the faculty to work harder. If they work harder and feel success, it's contagious so the whole area gets more done."

The faculty also viewed the ability to delegate responsibility and to organize activities as being essential for effectiveness. In the words of one faculty member,

> Does he get the important things done? Is he well organized? Does he know the importance of delegating responsibility, and is he smart enough to do it? These are important measures of effectiveness to me.

The deans of academic affairs were unanimous in the criteria of effectiveness which they described. The opinion of the deans was best summarized by one dean who said,

> My criteria of effectiveness are very clear. First, the person cannot have consistent problems in the division or with others. Things should run smoothly. Second, they need to know when to refer problems up and when to handle them on their own. Third, I should seldom have to override them. Fourth, others at the college, especially the faculty, and, if appropriate, in the community, must respect them and be able to work with them. Can they motivate the faculty and others? Fifth, they must get their work

> done and on time. Finally, and this is really subjective, but it's important to me, and I think to others. I must feel comfortable with the person and know that I can relate to them, trust them and know that they have a good attitude about the job.

It appears that there was substantial congruence in the opinions of the division chairpersons, faculty, and academic deans about the criteria used to measure the effectiveness of division chairpersons.

Factors Influencing Effectiveness

The researcher sought to identify the factors which the division chairpersons, deans, and faculty believed influenced the effectiveness of division chairpersons of career divisions. The researcher believed that these data were important because they could be considered in conjunction with the data which were described previously. These, in turn, could be considered as a basis for suggesting changes that needed to occur in order to increase the effectiveness of division chairpersons of career divisions.

Several factors were identified which positively influenced the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions; and several were identified which limited their effectiveness.

The division chairpersons unanimously agreed that their personal credibility with the faculty and others was the most important positive factor which influenced their effectiveness. In many ways, although other factors were identified, and many were agreed upon unanimously, they were all part of what the division chairpersons defined as credibility. They defined credibility essentially as trustworthiness. Cre-

dibility had to be earned by the division chairpersons by being: able to produce, dependable, competent, caring, and committed to the faculty and the division. In general the division chairpersons considered themselves to be the "leaders of the division and important to its success."

The importance of credibility was described in many ways by the division chairpersons. One way was that faculty in their areas needed to feel that the division chairpersons cared about them. One said, "I am not out to screw anyone and they know it. I want them to be happy in their job and get things done." Another said, "You must spend a lot of time with people. Let them know that you care. That you recognize them. I'm available. I care. I'll help without stabbing them. That's the most important part of my job." Another said,

> People have to know where you're coming from. They need to develop a trust relationship with you in order to bring about change. If not, they will not share their thoughts with you and will not own the objectives and not get involved. If that happens you are not effective.

That same chairperson went on to say, "Credibility is crucial for the reasons I gave. It means being honest and truthful and expecting it in return." That person concluded by saying, "Effectiveness is a by-product of credibility." One division chairperson summed up the feelings of the others with the statement that, "Look, we are salespeople. We are selling ourselves. If people believe in us and trust us, they will go along with us. If they don't, they won't."

In the opinions of the division chairpersons, their personal credibility, broadly defined, was the single most important factor which

influenced their effectiveness. Attaining and maintaining credibility, required skills and attributes, including:

- Reputation as a skilled teacher
- Personal energy and vision
- Political skills
- Written and interpersonal communication skills
- Positive attitude
- Organization skills
- Delegation skills

In identifying the factors which limited effectiveness the division chairpersons believed that a lack of credibility would significantly limit their effectiveness. Several emphasized that they made it a priority to do whatever they could to develop and maintain their credibility. Therefore, anything which influenced their ability to do their jobs, either positively or negatively, had to be given attention. One summarized this opinion very succinctly by stating, "Look , my credibility is critical to everything that I do. I have to really pay attention to how others perceive me if I am going to get anything done."

They unanimously agreed that one of the factors which influenced their credibility was their relationship with the dean of academic affairs. In their opinion the leadership style and behaviors of the deans of academic affairs were, at times, a limitation on their effectiveness. Delayed decisions and/or an unwillingness to make a decision, frequently caused frustration for the division chairpersons and diminished enthusiasm by faculty who needed action by the dean before they could proceed with an activity. The division chairpersons believed that

they were, at times, essentially compelled to circumvent the chain of command in order to get things done. One division chairperson said,

> I really hate to do it. It's not my style and I'm not comfortable with it. But sometimes I just have to go to the top to get action. If I don't my credibility is gone and I can't get anyone to do anything.

A related problem, in their judgment, wa the unwillingness of some deans to share information which the division chairpersons believed that they needed either to plan or implement actions. Without the information to proceed the division chairpersons found it difficult to maintain the support and involvement of the faculty. A related concern was that many of the deans and other high level administrators, generally did not consult with them or seek their advice on issues which they had to implement or directly act upon in some way. This made the responsibility for implementation much more difficult, especially when they might disagree with the policy because of its implications and effects, either upon the students, the faculty, or both. One typical comment was,

> How do you do your job when you don't know what's happening or you find out too late? A lot of times some serious program and personnel problems could be avoided if the dean would just let us know what is going on. I really don't understand why . . . [he/she] doesn't.

Insufficient time to complete their primary responsibilities was also cited by many division chairpersons as a limit on their effectiveness. The lack of time, they believed, was the result of a number of factors, some of which were present in most instances, and all of which were present in a few. For example, in some instances an excessive span of control created a lack of time. At one college a division

chairperson was responsible for a division which included nearly 50 full-time faculty members and several different career programs. The chairperson pointed out,

> I'm required to complete an evaluation of every full-time person every fall. I'm busy from about the second week of the semester until Thanksgiving doing evaluations and putting out fires that start because I'm not available. I don't have time to do anything else. It's frustrating because there's so much I want to do, should do, and need to do. I'm not really being used effectively by this college. They're not really allowing me to use my talents and skills.

That division chairperson was describing an effect of the faculty evaluation article of the collective-bargaining agreement. The evaluations had to be completed by administrators, and the division chairpersons were the first line of administration in most instances. At most colleges division chairpersons were also expected to evaluate part-time faculty, but the classroom observation could be in the spring semester. This particular responsibility, in combination with the other five components of the faculty evaluation process, meant that the division chairperson quoted above had to complete about 300 separate evaluation components each fall. Each of these components required some narrative and a signed response from the faculty members.

The division chairpersons' use of time was also affected by the number, size, status, and organization of programs in their divisions. Additionally, the amount of support provided for the division chairperson including secretarial assistance and department chairpersons/program coordinators affected how they had to allocate their time and energy. There were some inconsistencies in the patterns of organization and support of career divisions. Career divisions at all but one of the

colleges sampled included programs which developed related or clustered skills as well as the same or related disciplines. Health divisions frequently included programs in registered nursing, dental assisting, radiologic technology, respiratory therapy, occupational/physical therapy and other related programs. Business divisions included accounting, business administration, business management, business transfer, or office education. Other career divisions such as human services or technologies, (including engineering), were organized in a similar way.

Some colleges had narrowly focused divisions which involved as few as three programs with a total of 17/19 faculty members, seven full-time and 10/12 part-time. Others had as many as 15 programs in the day division alone, and most included some programs in the division of continuing education and community services. The division chairpersons' level of responsibility for the latter programs varied from college to college. In most divisions the chairpersons were the only administrators; therefore, they were responsible for all of the evaluations as well as the other administrative responsibilities. Most colleges had department chairpersons and/or program coordinators who could assist the division chairpersons with many of the non-personnel responsibilities. They were involved to a limited degree in faculty recruitment, and in some health programs, they could complete an evaluation of faculty who taught in the clinical area. Coordinators could also assist or be responsible in such other areas as student recruitment, course and program development, faculty and course scheduling, coordination of book orders, development and implementation of grants and budgets, liaison to external accrediting or

affiliating agencies, organization of advisory committees, and other related responsibilities.

The colleges provided secretarial support for the division chairpersons ranging from a full-time secretary whose primary responsibility was to work for an individual chairperson to one who worked for all of one college's division chairpersons and faculty. Most division chairpersons had a full-time secretary who was also expected to work for the faculty under the chairpersons' supervision.

There were also inconsistencies which, like the consistencies, were based upon past college practices and organizational philosophy. One college had no department chairpersons or program coordinators. The effect of this was to place the responsibility for program or department organization on the division chairpersons who had few, if any, persons to whom they could delegate responsibility. This problem was exacerbated in divisions with externally accredited programs or with large inventories of equipment and supplies. Another college chose to organize its divisions to purposely prevent a community of career or discipline interest among the programs and to select division chairpersons who seldom had a background in any of the areas for which they were responsible. The goal was to prevent isolation, facilitate communication among diverse disciplines and career areas, and to, "encourage the division chairpersons to have fresh perspectives on the faculty and the programs, unfettered by their own discipline or career biases." One of the effects was to diminish the possibilities for planning, cooperation and sharing which frequently occurs within divisions. Another was to

put the division chairpersons in a position where they had to depend upon the faculty for the leadership in program development and change as well as for extensive quality control.

Another factor which, in the opinion of some, limited their overall effectiveness was the degree to which they were responsible for division of continuing education programs and courses. This responsibility could be, in many ways, like being responsible for an additional division. In fact the division of continuing education responsibility could possibly be larger and more complex. Thus, in effect, these divisions chairpersons could be responsible for two separate divisions, one during the day and one, for the most part, in the evening and during the summer. As one division chairperson pointed out, "I spend nearly 60 percent of my time in continuing education. It really detracts from time I need to do other things, including spending time with the faculty." One factor which consistently made responsibility in the division of continuing education particularly difficult was the fact that this responsibility was added to the existing day division responsibilities with little if any additional support and with little or no extra compensation. As the colleges sought to become more comprehensive and to reach out to new audiences the vehicle for doing so was often division of continuing education programming because of the flexibility, control of resources, and opportunity for more rapid response. Thus, the division chairpersons were ambivalent.

The division chairpersons believed that if they had more autonomy in the allocation of their budgets and personnel, they could be more effective. They suggested examples of how they would allocate positions

and how they would manage their budgets, especially if they could carry-over balances from one fiscal year to the next. The restraints identified by the division chairpersons were imposed by the deans, by college policy, by the collective-bargaining agreement, and by state law. Most of the division chairpersons indicated that they could get the personnel and other resources which they needed if they developed a strong case and brought it to the attention of the dean. The problem was more the timing of the deans' decisions-frequently very late-which made it difficult for the division chairpersons to complete long-range planning or develop initiatives with any significant degree of confidence.

The collective-bargaining agreement was considered to be a significant limitation because it included workload formulas and policies which, in the opinion of the division chairpersons, prevented them from using the skills of the faculty as effectively as they would like. The collective-bargaining agreement stipulated the maximum number of hours which faculty members could be expected to work each week (37). It also specified, within set ranges and driven by formulas, the proportion of that workload which could be devoted to the functions of classroom instruction and preparation, student advising, office hours, and college service. The collective-bargaining agreement, because it placed limits upon the autonomy of the division chairpersons in their allocation of personnel, was perceived by the division chairpersons as an impediment to the effective management of the colleges' resources and therefore a limitation on the effectiveness of the division chairpersons. The division chairpersons did not believe that they could do much to influence state law, but they did believe that they could have some influence upon

the dean and upon college policy. Additionally, as was noted earlier, they made an effort to influence the collective-bargaining agreement that was being negotiated in 1985 and 1986, to take effect July 1, 1986. They also proposed to continue to seek to have this involvement in future years.

The faculty also believed that division chairpersons needed to: be credible, be responsible for a manageable size division, have reasonable secretarial support available to them, and have a good working relationship with the dean of academic affairs. Some also said that division chairpersons needed to be well organized. If not, they believed that the diversity and breadth of their responsibilities would make it difficult for them to be effective. The faculty agreed with the division chairpersons' belief that the collective-bargaining agreement was a limit on the division chairpersons' effectiveness.

The deans also shared the opinion that the collective-bargaining agreement was a significant limit on the effectiveness of the division chairpersons' both in terms of the limits that the aggreement it placed upon the division chairpersons' authority, as well as, the time that it required to implement its various components, especially the evaluation article. The deans also believed that the size and diversity of divisions, especially those which involved external accreditation, were limits on the division chairpersons' effectiveness. The complexity of the programs and the time required to complete paperwork could make it difficult for chairpersons of large divisions to allocate their time and energy properly. One dean suggested that a lack of sharing of information or the failure of the dean of academic affairs to provide necessary

support could be a real limit on the effectiveness of division chairpersons.

Division chairpersons believed that their effectiveness was influenced by their ability to communicate with people and their combination of energy and vision. The division chairpersons considered these to be strengths, along with their credibility, as previously noted. Most asserted that their successes and reputations as teachers, along with their openness and honesty, were essential ingredients in their effectiveness. A typical comment was, "I feel that I have the skills needed to manage in most areas. But my knowledge of the field gives me an advantage in quality control, leadership, just understanding what's happening."

The faculty and the deans agreed, although their emphases differed. Both groups considered collegiate teaching experience, preferably at the community college level and in a discipline within their division, to be essential in establishing credibility with the faculty and in effectively executing their responsibilities. The faculty considered discipline competency and teaching essential and management skills to be important. The deans considered management skills to be essential, while teaching and discipline competency were only considered to be important. One dean said, "I want managers first and foremost. People who can get the things done that need to be done." Another said, "It is important for the faculty to respect the division chairpersons as an academician, but it's not essential. It is essential for them to be able to manage." On the other hand, a faculty member said, "It's really important for them to have had the same experiences and to understand what we're facing.

They know what we need and why. They're not planners and developers who don't understand a classroom." This difference between the deans and the faculty in emphasis was consistent with their responses to other questions in the interview. When compared with the tasks to be accomplished, division chairpersons were satisfied with their overall effectiveness given the resources and time available. Within that context, they believed that they really had few weaknesses which were barriers to their effectiveness. However they did identify some weaknesses. One frequent opinion was that they probably could have accomplished more if they had delegated more responsibility, and had expected and encouraged faculty to assist them. One chairperson said, "I am learning that I can't do everything. I let other people help me now." Most attributed their failure to delegate to a variety of causes including their own unwillingness, their lack of time to work with or gain the support of the faculty, and a lack of confidence in the people to whom they could delegate. They all said that they could probably have been even more effective if they had worked to get the faculty more actively involved in various projects, including program development and recruiting of students and faculty. They considered failures to delegate and involve faculty as self-imposed limitations. It appeared, though, that many had not really consciously thought about the issue before the interview. A typical comment from such chairpersons was, "I guess when I think about it, there are things that I could get the faculty to help me with. I guess that I could delegate some things."

Another weakness expressed by some was their "impatience with bureaucracy." They considered rules and procedures which seemed to have

no real purpose as obstacles that prevented them from getting things done. Some expressed the opinion that if they were more patient and "played the game" more, they could probably get more done. But, as one said, "It's damn frustrating. I just want to get things done. I don't have the damn time to waste playing stupid games with people who seem to care less." Some indicated that this impatience was also applied to some faculty members who did not want to get involved and who the division chairpersons believed lacked vision. Had they been more patient, the division chairpersons thought they might be able to get more people involved and get more things done.

Willingness and/Ability to Increase Effectiveness

The researcher believed that it was important to determine not only the factors which influenced the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions, but also to determine whether the division chairpersons were willing and able to increase their effectiveness if they had the opportunity to do so. The identification of limitations on their effectiveness and changes that needed to be made would, in the opinion of the researcher, have limited value if the chairpersons were not willing or able to make the necessary changes.

All of the division chairpersons, as noted earlier, shared the opinion that they were effective, especially when they considered what the limits they perceived as placed upon them. They also indicated a desire to increase their effectiveness by taking several actions, including:

- Improving delegation skills.
- Building relationships with faculty members.
- Increasing faculty involvement in divisional activities.
- Being more patient with others and holding them accountable for completing tasks.
- Working with the dean of academic affairs, including taking more initiative.
- Rethinking some of their own attitudes and behaviors.

Although they all expressed a desire and an interest in increasing their effectiveness and taking the steps to do so, they believed that the only way that they would really be able to increase their effectiveness was if others increased theirs. Specifically, the deans of academic affairs would have to address those areas described previously as limits on the effectiveness of division chairpersons. System-wide issues, especially those related to the budget and collective bargaining, needed to be improved, also. Additionally, the deans of academic affairs needed to share more information and in a more timely fashion, delegate more responsibility, make timely decisions, provide more support assistance, and involve division chairpersons or insure that others invoved them in policy making. They shared the opinion that they were only as effective as the dean allowed them to be. They concluded that if the deans did not do their jobs effectively they could not do their jobs effectively.

The division chairpersons did agree that the deans frequently responded positively to their requests for resources, decisions, or in-

volvement whenever the division chairpersons took the initiative to tell them what they needed, and if the deans had the authority to do so on their own. What frequently caused delays was the inability, inaction, or unwillingness of the dean to convince other areas to respond.

Many division chairpersons shared the opinion that professional development opportunities would be of some assistance in helping them to develop the leadership skills needed to be more effective. Examples included interpersonal communication, evaluation, mediation, and time management. In fact, the State Council of Division Chairpersons, with the approval of the deans and the presidents, planned an annual professional day each spring around a topic selected by the Council. Topics have included classroom observation skills, computer use in the classroom, faculty evaluation, mediation, and others.

A final concern expressed by many division chairpersons was that their effectiveness would continue to be limited until the presidents and deans honored the chain-of-command in decision-making. As one chairperson said,

> I don't care if the President and Dean have an open door for all faculty. I can understand that. But they shouldn't make decisions without our input. What's that say about how important we are or how much we are valued?

Prospects for Changes

The division chairpersons, deans, and faculty members all expressed pessimism about the possibility of changes at the Regents' level or in collective bargaining. Although many college budgets had improved, and salaries had increased in the 1980's after a difficult

period from 1975 until the early 1980's, the consensus was that the increase in salaries was only catch-up. More importantly, the budgets were insufficient to meet the increased and more complex demands being made upon community colleges.

The division chairpersons could best be described as pessimistic but stoic about the possibilities for change. A few expressed real anger and frustration, but most accepted the situation and were determined to do the best that they could as long as they continued to enjoy their jobs. They expressed some sense of powerlessness in the face of demographics which resulted in fewer available high school graduates and the decreasing quality and quantity of student applicants and acceptances. The state of the economy caused feelings of powerless, too. A strong economy frequently resulted in more students accepting jobs rather than attending college full-time.

The division chairpersons all were ambivalent about their ability to make changes at their own colleges. On the one hand, some believed that by taking more initiative and being more assertive, they could influence the faculty, the deans and others to a greater degree than they had. Others believed that given the personalities or organizations at their colleges, little change was possible. Therefore, they were not willing to take the risks or the initiative to try to bring about changes because of a sense of powerlessness.

The deans indicated that they also thought that there was little chance of much change because people were so busy. Staffing, especially in the administrative area, was not expected to increase significantly in relationship to increased levels of responsibility. They

did share the opinion that some increase in effectiveness could occur as the division chairpersons had more experience as administrators and as they became more comfortable in their roles. Some increase in effectiveness was also projected if there were changes in the collective-bargaining agreement, especially in the evaluation process, which would free up more time to work on other responsibilities.

The faculty expressed satisfaction with the effectiveness of their respective division chairpersons. They believed the limitations on their collegues were mainly external in terms of limited funds and collective bargaining.

Analysis

The organization of the case data and the classification of the data into a case record was the first step in the process of analysis. The analysis involved the process of indentification and ordering of categories, themes, and patterns which emerged from the data. These included: (1) shared characteristics and skills; (2) conflicts and contradictions in expectations; (3) importance of the relationship of the chairperson of a career division and the dean of academic affairs; (4) and the identification of barriers to effectiveness.

Shared Characteristics of Chairpersons of Career Divisions

In reviewing the case record, which included the data produced by the interviews, the results of the written questionnaire, and the re-

searcher's observations, several characteristics emerged which were shared by all of the division chairpersons involved in the study. The shared characteristics were:

- Experienced teachers
- Pro-active
- Impatient
- Self-confident
- Internalization of the college's mission
- Political astuteness
- Sensitivity to faculty/staff needs
- High standards
- Commitment to participatory decision-making
- Risk-takers

Each of the division chairpersons was an experienced community college teacher who placed great value on teaching effectiveness as a determinant of the quality of any program or college. Six of the 10 interviewees continued to teach at least one course each semester. They indicated that such an arrangement was typical for division chairpersons at their colleges and was one which they enjoyed. The researcher also spoke with several other division chairpersons of career and non-career divisions at other community colleges. He found that they also taught at least one course each semester and they that they believed that it was important for them to teach.

Each of the division chairpersons described themselves in pro-active terms. They did not wait for situations to develop and then react to them. Rather they sought to take the initiative, identify

issues and problems, and then act on them. They had sought their positions because they wanted to be able to take the initiative and influence the direction of their respective colleges. It was their opinion that they had a responsibility to provide the leadership needed to develop new programs, support faculty efforts to improve the quality of instruction, solve problems, and remain current with the needs of the college and the community. Each of these initiatives required a great deal of time and energy.

This desire to affect change and to be pro-active appeared to be related to another of their shared characteristics. Most of the division chairpersons characterized themselves as impatient. They said that they wanted changes to occur or actions to be taken more rapidly than they did. They described themselves as being frustrated by "bureaucratic red-tape", intransigence, and the unwillingness of some faculty and/or administrators to get involved so that the changes, which the division chairpersons believed were necessary, could be made.

The division chairpersons also demonstated self-confidence. In their opinions they were doing a good job, and, given the breadth of their responsibilities and the limited resources available to them, no one could realistically expect much more of them either qualitatively or quantitatively. They shared the view that their self-confidence was critical to their effectiveness because if they "felt good" about themselves they were better able to work with other people. Typical comments were, "How I feel about myself, my self-confidence, is the most important thing about how effectively I do my job." Or, "Don't

get me wrong, I'm sure that I make some mistakes. But I'm confident that I know what I'm doing and what I'm trying to do is right." Another said quite simply, "How I feel about myself is the most important thing about how I do my job. If I don't achieve my goals, and carry out my responsibilities, I feel bad about myself. I don't do as good a job."

This self-confidence appeared to be the result of the numerous successes which they described as well as from their belief that they had a very clear insight and understanding of the mission of their respective colleges and of community colleges in general. It appeared that this insight and understanding, in effect the internalization of the college's vision into their own value system, might provide a partial explanation for their desire to be division chairpersons, their selection for the position, and their ability to work effectively with their respective deans of academic affairs. It might also be a partial explanation for their impatience with others as they sought to achieve goals and were frustrated by what they perceived to be barriers to their achievement.

Their impatience with the "bureaucracy" appeared to be balanced by their judgment that their colleges were governed in part by an internal political system which affected what was accomplished. When asked to describe what they meant by politics, one division chairperson's description captured the essence of all of the others' definitions by describing politics as,

> A process of consensus and coalition building. It involves interpersonal relationships, compromise, the struggle over the alloca-

> tion of resources and policy. You know, knowing how to make the system work to get the things that need to be done, done.

In the opinions of the division chairpersons they had to be good politicians to do their jobs. One typical statement was,

> You can't be a successful division chairperson without being a successful politician. There is a direct relationship between politics and power. If the division chair is to be effective he needs power. To have power he must be political. It's simple.

Another division chairperson described the need to be political very simply and to the point, declaring that, "Division chairpersons must be good politicians or they would fall on their asses. These academics would get screwed and never know where it was coming from. Too many academics are horrible politicians and become failures."

This judgment that division chairpersons need to be effective politicians was complemented by the division chairpersons' apparent sensitivity to faculty members. In the opinion of the division chairpersons they depend upon the faculty to do the work of the division, therefore they had to spend as much time as possible with them in order to develop and maintain relationships. They appeared to be very sensitive to faculty concerns about class size, facilities, student abilities, teaching schedules, the need for instructional materials as well as other issues of concern to the faculty. They shared the opinion that their primary responsibility was to provide the support and resources that the faculty needed to do their jobs, remain happy, and maintain the quality of the programs in their divisions.

All of the division chairpersons shared the desire to maintain high standards in teaching and programs. In fact, they indicated that

their effectiveness should be measured, at least partially, by the quality of the programs in their divisions. Maintaining high standards, in their opinions, involved a number of factors, including: recruiting faculty and students, doing a conscientious job in carrying out their responsibilities to evaluate the faculty, and securing adequate resources for the faculty to remain professionally active and current.

The division chairpersons believed that one way of maintaining and improving program quality was to involve the faculty in the planning and decision-making, wherever and whenever possible. This opinion was best summarized by one division chairperson who said, "I am absolutely committed to the process of consensus decision-making. Ultimately that brings forth the best decisions, the best solutions, and the best results." Others said it differently, but very clearly. For example:

> You can't just tell them [the faculty] this is the way things are going to be. This will not work with them. You've got to get them to see the advantage of it. They're good at that. They bitch, bitch, bitch, but they come around. You just have to talk, listen, and wait through that period.

A final characteristic which the division chairpersons shared was that they appeared to be risk-takers. Their impatience and self-confidence, combined with their desire to influence their colleges, led them to take risks either in developing new programs, advocating for resources, or seeking to carry out their responsibilities on a daily basis in such a way that they were able to achieve their personal goals. This frequently involved taking risks because at

times it required a challenge to the status quo. They appeared to accept this risk-taking as an inherent responsibility of their position. One division chairperson stated quite clearly, "I don't have a problem doing different things. I am not afraid to do new things, push, or take risks. That's part of the job." Another said, "We've made a lot of strides, but we have had to take risks. Strides are made because you are able to take risks."

One opinion which summed up those expressed by the others was,

> I enjoy taking moderate risks. That's one of the reasons why I like my job so much. The environment supports risk-taking and I have the autonomy and support to do so, most of the time. At other times you just take your chances.

The characteristics of the division chairpersons which emerged from the data were consistent with whose which were described by the academic deans and faculty members. They unanimously agreed that the criteria that they would consider in selecting a chairperson for a career division would include:

- A commitment to supporting, assisting, working with the faculty
- Successful teaching experience and strong academic credentials in a least one of their areas of responsibility
- Strong interpersonal communication skills
- High credibility
- Role-model for faculty

In addition to these areas of agreement of both groups, the deans shared the expectation that the division chairperson would be one who:

- Made things happen

- Was assertive/initiator/self-directed/dependable/adaptable
- Took a broad view of college responsibilities
- Was willing to make tough decisions/recommendations

The opinions expressed by the faculty in various parts of the interviews indicated that they would either agree that these were important characteristics from their perspective or would accept them as being important from an administrative perspective. It appears then that there was substantial agreement between the deans of academic affairs and faculty as to the criteria for selecting a chairperson of a career division and the characteristics which emerged from the data provided by the division chairpersons.

Skills of Effective Chairpersons of Career Divisions

The researcher found that there was a consensus as to the skills expected from effective chairpersons of career divisions. These skills included: ability to communicate, ability to motivate, problem-solving, politically astute, organize, mediate, and negotiate.

All of the persons interviewed shared the opinion that to be effective division chairpersons had to be able to "communicate" with others. Communication, in their judgment, had several components, including the ability to: express ideas clearly and understandably, convince others to accept them and their ideas, and convince others to respond positively to their requests. Their descriptions of communication skills also involved listening, understanding, and empathy.

Communication involved a category of skills which, they believed, were essential if the faculty were to be motivated to be involved in the various activities required for the division and the college to be successful. These included: improvement of teaching skills, effective student advising, professional development, course and program development, as well as other related activities. The division chairpersons described a role for themselves in which they, in effect, developed a strategy to help the faculty to self-actualize within the context of their responsibilities. A typical comment by a division chairperson was,

> They [faculty] want to enjoy themselves and feel good about what they're doing. You've got to figure out how to help them to do that and still do what is needed. You've got to be alert and pick up on what they say or don't say. If I'm able to get people to make a greater effort and to enjoy themselves, then I feel that I've been effective.

Another broad category was described as problem-solving skills. The faculty believed that these skills were essential. The problems could involve the acquisition of resources, the resolution of a conflict with another individual or area, or it could be advising or supporting a faculty member with a personal problem. On the other hand the deans of academic affairs, and the division chairpersons themselves, expected the division chairpersons to solve their own problems and to keep activity moving smoothly, only referring those issues to the deans which they were not able to resolve themselves or those which had the potential to become larger problems. These expectations appeared to be complementary.

One of the characteristics of chairpersons of career divisions which emerged and was described was their political astuteness and involvement. It was very clear from the interviews that each of the groups of people interviewed shared the opinion that it was important for division chairpersons to have political skills. Political skills were incorporated in discussions of communications, advocacy, planning, and problem-solving as well as other areas. On some occasions the interviewees used the descriptive terms politics, political, or politician. In other instances they used terms such as alliance building, "knowing your way around", or getting to the "right people", to describe the same skills and behaviors as those who described them as politics or political. In fact, it was these political skills which many considered to be very important in solving problems. Politics involved the ability to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups, such as individual faculty members and the division. Politics also involved influence, and those who were the most influential got the most of what there was to get. The division chairperson needed to know where the power was within the college and externally, and be able to appeal to that power on behalf of the interests of their division.

Political skills appeared to be essential for division chairpersons to maintain the support of the faculty in their divisions. If they were not able to produce for their divisions they would in all likelihood lose the support of the faculty. Consequently, if they had not already done so, they would probably lose the support of the deans of academic affairs given the deans' expectations of the division

chairpersons. It was very clear that both the faculty and deans expected the division chairpersons to be advocates for their divisions, but that the deans also expected the division chairpersons to balance their advocacy role with the skill of working as part of a team which also needed to consider broader college needs.

As was noted, the issue of politics was discussed to some degree when characteristics were described. But the twin issues of power and politics were very important and illustrative in understanding the opinions of the division chairpersons. On the one hand they acknowl-edged that, as one person asserted, "Power is obviously with the President. He has all the power. The unions also have a lot of power. But division chairpersons also have a lot of power. We can pretty much do what we want." This latter opinion was stated even more directly by another division chairperson who responded to a probing question about the locus of power at the college by stating, "You're looking at it. The division chairs have it. We maximize our relationships with the faculty to build support and we manipulate the Dean so we get what we want." That person went on to say, "At this point in time the real power rests with the division chairpersons. There is no way that the President and the Dean can impose their wills. They need us." Another said, "There is no more powerful position at this college than division chairpersons."

Another division chairperson continued that line of reasoning by pointing out that the ability to get things done, to be politically effective, depended to a great extent on the situation. The person asserted that, "Power is proportionate. The President, Dean, faculty,

and others all play a role. But the division chairperson must orchestrate it all to be effective." These opinions were essentially placed in perspective by another division chairperson who noted that, "Although we really have a lot of power, it's very obvious that the people who are the source of your power, the faculty, the dean, they're also, by definition, limitations of your authority."

Each of the groups interviewed shared the opinion that division chairpersons in addition to being able to work with people, knowing how to get things done, and knowing where the power was in the college, also had to have effective organizational skills, including the ability to delegate responsibility. This latter skill, delegation, appeared to be particularly important as it included involving faculty in planning and development. It also involved organizing personal time so that the division chairpersons' time could be used more effectively to accomplish their responsibilities. Delegation also involved communicating with the faculty, self-confidence, and trusting both the faculty and the dean of academic affairs. Therefore, organization skills were important and they involved several other skills and attitudes.

In addition to being skillful in delegating responsibility and involving others, the division chairpersons had to be able to organize their own activities so that they could complete their responsibilities in a timely fashion. This meant meeting deadlines, scheduling courses, developing and implementing budgets and grants, writing reports, recruiting and hiring faculty, and other related responsibilities. Completion of these responsibilities in a timely fashion

required the ability to organize time, people, and responsibilities as well as the ability to gain the cooperation of others who were involved.

The ability to work with others and to have their confidence appeared to be related to other skills expected of division chairpersons. All of the groups interviewed also shared the opinion that chairpersons of career divisions also needed to have skills as mediators and negotiators. These skills were expected because conflicts frequently arose between and among faculty within the division, with students, or with faculty and staff in other divisions or units. The conflicts sometimes were brought to the division chairpersons by the faculty or students to develop solutions or to mediate. At other times the division chairpersons needed to take the initiative and intervene in situations. In some instances they needed to be skilled negotiators. Negotiations could involve convincing faculty to accept or assigning faculty to teach new courses or additional sections of a course. It could also include encouraging a faculty member to assume responsibility for a particular project. In some areas faculty could be assigned specific responsibilities and expected to complete them, and in other areas mutual agreement was required by the collective-bargaining agreement. Whether assigned or mutually agreed upon, the faculty member frequently needed to be motivated to make a conscientious effort if the assignment was to be successfully completed. Negotiation skills were also necessary when working with other units of the college, either in seeking their cooperation on joint ventures, or seeking resources. Negotiation was particularly important in working with the dean of academic affairs, especially in the case of pro-active division chair-

persons who needed resources and support to develop new programs or make changes.

Conflicts and Contradictions

Several conflicts and contradictions which influenced the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions emerged from the data. Many of these types of role conflicts were identified in the literature which addressed middle managers and first-line managers. These conflicts and contradictions included: (1) division advocate versus administrative team member; (2) expectation of smooth divisional operation versus the expectation of providing leadership for change and the upset that it often entailed; (3) teacher and role-model versus administrator; (4) expectations of loyalty by both the faculty and the dean; (5) responsibility to motivate and encourage the faculty versus administrative responsibility to implement the collective- bargaining agreement; (6) expectation of developing a strong working relationship with and a positive work environment for faculty versus a breadth of responsibility which limited their time to work with faculty; (7) substantial autonomy versus significant limits on what could be accomplished without support from the faculty and the dean.

The first conflict became very evident during the interviews. The faculty made it quite clear that in their judgment the primary responsibility of division chairpersons was to support them and to make resources available to them. In order to accomplish this, the division chairpersons were expected to be effective advocates for the needs and

desires of the faculty of their divisions. At the same time the deans made it clear that they too expected the division chairpersons to advocate for their respective divisions, but to understand the needs of the total college and to put college needs before divisional. This created a problem for the division chairpersons whose effectiveness was measured by the faculty in terms of what they produced for the division. Credibility was linked to their effectiveness. The division chairpersons skills' as communicators were particularly important in this area as they had to argue effectively for their divisions' needs with the dean and other key administrators, while making the faculty aware of the broader college needs, and the importance of balance between divisional and college needs. This was a particularly crucial balancing act as the division chairpersons had to have credibility with the dean and the faculty in order to be effective.

A second, but related, conflict resulted from the expectation of the deans that the divisions should run smoothly and with a minimum of conflict, while expecting the division chairpersons to bring about changes which were frequently unsettling. Change took many forms, including: instructional methodology, the addition of new programs, the deletion or reduction of existing programs, changes in existing curricula, modifications of teaching schedules, as well as numerous others. Any of these or other changes could be both upsetting or threatening to faculty members. Faculty either were fearful that their positions would be threatened, if they indicated their fear or disagreement with the changes, or they resisted changes in their customary schedules. The conflict could be diminished and the change smoothly implemented if the

division chairpersons was skilled, had credibility with the faculty, and had the support and understanding of the dean. If all or any of these were not present, a serious conflict could develop which would prevent, or substantially delay, needed changes. Or worse, the division chairpersons might not even attempt to make any changes. If that were to occur, quality and long term survival could be the price for short term tranquility.

A third conflict was the result of the high value which those teaching division chairpersons placed on their teaching responsibilities. Those who taught believed that teaching was very important. It allowed them to remain in contact with student and faculty needs and concerns. It also allowed them, in their judgment, to serve as role-models of teachers and advisors, as well as to build and maintain credibility, especially with the faculty. In many colleges where division chairpersons continued to teach, the deans appeared to send mixed messages in many instances. On the one hand deans said that they valued teaching as an important part of division chairpersons' responsibilities and expected them to continue to teach; but on the other hand deans did not allow them prep time, as faculty received, as part of their workload. Therefore, it appeared that teaching was, in fact, a secondary expectation of the deans who expected administrative tasks to be done in a timely and effective fashion. Therefore, it had become increasingly difficult for those division chairpersons to carry out their responsibilities as teachers at the level that they expected

of themselves. It appeared that this conflict was being resolved by several division chairpersons' decisions to either return to their faculty positions, or (more frequently) by getting approval to give up teaching. In some instances, because of the structure of the division and/or the organizational philosophy of the college, this latter choice did not appear to be an option. Thus, the conflict was likely to continue. It should be noted, though, that the pace of the increase in workload accelerated while this study was being conducted, and some division chairpersons were confronted with these decisions for the first time.

Another conflict, related to this above-mentioned conflict, was the question of loyalty. Simply stated, both the deans and the faculty expected the division chairpersons to be loyal to them. Loyalty was described by the deans as commitment primarily to administrative tasks and the administrative vision of the college. Faculty described loyalty as commitment to them. In all but the instance of a division chairperson who had come directly from business, the division chairpersons had previously been successful and committed faculty members. They shared the opinion that they understood, supported, and were loyal to student and faculty needs. Yet they argued that there were times when compromises were needed and the faculty perspective was either too narrow, or too selfish. This raised a question of the division chairpersons' loyalty and commitment in the minds of at least some faculty members. Yet, because division chairpersons understood and felt the needs of faculty and students, they strongly advocated for these needs. This advocacy, in the view of some deans, raised the question of

their commitment as administrators, their vision of the college, and their willingness to participate and contribute to a team effort. The team, in this definition, apparently was comprised of administrators or those who shared the administrative perspective. It appeared that the division chairpersons understood that they were administrators first and had a broad, team oriented perspective of their responsibilities. They also considered the faculty to be a part of the team with the goal of program excellence. The division chairpersons believed that it was their responsibility to interpret the institution to both groups so that each could better understand the goals, needs, and perspectives of the others, and thus be better able to work together.

The responses of the deans and the faculty during the interviews indicated that the perception of the division chairpersons' "loyalty" was very important in determining their credibility with both groups. The actions, behaviors, and opinions of the division chairpersons perhaps were judged by both groups against a standard of loyalty as opposed to a more objective standard of appropriateness or inappropriateness. This could involve budget allocation, implementation of a grant or the collective-bargaining agreement, teaching schedule, workload, resource allocation, or any number of other issues. The division chairpersons have generally addressed this by indicating that they accepted their responsibilities as administrators and that they would carry out their responsibilities in a fair and reasonable manner. Their goal was to maintain the support and credibility of both sides.

This conflict or issue about loyalty was often exacerbated by the deans' expectations that the division chairpersons should motivate the

faculty to either improve or change to meet a particular need. The responsibility to evaluate faculty members, and to make recommendations regarding faculty applications for promotions or sabbatical leaves was considered by the interviewees to limit their ability to motivate faculty. The division chairpersons suggested that evaluations and recommendations frequently resulted in conflicts, or at least bruised feelings (especially on the part of the faculty) which made cooperative efforts more difficult. This predicament limited the chairperson's ability to develop the trust relationships and the mutual understandings so necessary to motivate people effectively.

In the opinion of the division chairpersons their credibility would be greater, and their ability to overcome the inherent adversarial relationships in the collective-bargaining process would be increased if they had more time to spend with the faculty in developing and maintaining relationships. This expectation was the basis of one of the most serious conflicts, yet probably one of the most difficult to quantify. The deans and the faculty also shared the expectation that that division chairpersons should spend more time with the faculty. But the faculty did not indicate a willingness to shape their schedules to accommodate this. Although expressing the opinion that this contact was very important, when pressed to explain what they did to help the division chairpersons to meet this expectation the deans said, in effect, that it was the division chairpersons' responsibility to find a way. The division chairpersons expressed frustration that they could not meet this expectation primarily because of the time required to implement the collective-bargaining agreement and the numerous meetings called by var-

ious administrators. The division chairpersons shared the opinion that, in most instances, time spent, in the words of one division chairperson, "in redundant meetings called to justify the existence of some administrators", could be better spent. Informally talking with the faculty in order to strengthen personal relationships and to have a better understanding of what was happening was believed to be a better use of the division chairpersons' time. It was these relationships which they believed helped them to motivate and gain the support of faculty on various issues, as well as to bridge the gap between faculty and administration. They also believed that time spent with the faculty was important for the faculty to solve problems, vent their frustrations, brain-storm new ideas, or just share the personal information which provided the mortar that held the relationships together.

A final conflict or dichotomy resulted from the conflict between the division chairpersons' high level of autonomy and the constraints placed upon it. They were placed by a combination of the collective-bargaining agreement, the need for faculty support for most initiatives, and the division chairpersons' lack of authority to make decisions, rather than recommendations, in the areas of personnel and sometimes in resource allocation.The division chairpersons expressed a strong orientation toward action, a strong interest in program development, and impatience with the pace of making changes. They shared the opinion that their effectiveness would be increased if they had more authority to make final decisions, and to be held accountable for them. Because their autonomy was circumscribed by these factors, they indicated that it was even more important for them to improve their skills and increase

their patience in order to plan and negotiate their way through the system to achieve their objectives more effectively.

Relationship with the Dean of Academic Affairs

The division chairpersons and faculty members considered the relationship between the dean of academic affairs and a division chairperson as a critical element in the effectiveness of that division chairperson and his/her division. If they were to receive the budgetary support and personnel needed to operate the programs in their divisions the division chairpersons agreed that it was essential for them to have the confidence of the dean. Additionally, their authority could be limited or expanded by the degree to which the dean delegated authority to them, shared information with them, and involved them in making decisions. In the opinion of the division chairpersons they also needed timely decisions and support from the dean for the chain-of-command. In the latter instance, if faculty could go directly to the dean for decisions, the division chairpersons believed that their positions would be undermined.

In analyzing the data it also became very obvious that the division chairpersons shared the opinion that they had to manage the dean of academic affairs in order to get many things done which they considered to be important. They described several techniques which they used to accomplish this including: manipulation, development of options, development of grass roots support, taking the initiative, alignment of their goals with the deans' priorities, and other strategies appropriate to the given situation. The division chairpersons practiced upward man-

agement in order to gain and retain credibility as well as the autonomy and support of their own faculties which they considered to be essential to maintain their own effectiveness.

The deans shared the opinion that their relationships with the division chairpersons were important to the deans' effectiveness. They expressed a desire to have persons reporting to them in whom they had confidence and with whom they were comfortable. They needed to know that responsibilities would be completed in a timely fashion by persons who took the initiative and who had sound judgment. It was also essential, in the opinion of the deans, that the individuals be able to advise them accurately on matters of substance and keep them informed of faculty concerns. They essentially confirmed the opinions of many of the division chairpersons which were summarized by one who said, "If we blow it, life can be tough for the Dean and the President. They need us to do a good job and make them look good." This may have been an over simplification, but it did place in perspective a commonly held opinion of the importance of the role of division chairpersons in involving and linking the faculty and staff with achievement of the goals of the college.

Barriers to Effectiveness

The division chairpersons identified and described what they considered to be barriers to their effectiveness. These barriers could best be categorized as: (1) inadequate secretarial support for themselves and the faculty; (2) insufficient time to properly complete their

major responsibilities; (3) insufficient involvement in policy-making and planning in matters which affected their divisions and which they were expected to implement; and, (4) a lack of sufficient authority to carry out their responsibilities.

The division chairpersons unanimously agreed that secretarial assistance was very important to their effectiveness. Secretarial assistance was needed to take messages, arrange meetings, complete varied typing assignments for the chairperson and the faculty, answer questions for students, and other related tasks. Despite the unanimous agreement on the importance of assistance, among division chairpersons, with which the faculty and deans concurred, secretarial assistance available to the division chairpersons and faculty varied widely from college to college.

The data gathered through the interviews was supported by data from a survey completed by the State Council of Division Chairpersons to determine the secretarial assistance available to division chairpersons and faculty. The support ranged from a full-time secretary who worked exclusively for the chairperson of a division whose faculty also had other secretarial assistance available to them, to a college with one secretary to support all of the division chairpersons and all of the faculty. This lack of support was considered to be a barrier because work was frequently completed late, never attempted, or was completed by the division chairpersons who spent a great deal of time doing the basic clerical tasks needing completion. Where such conditions existed, they deterred the division chairpersons from spending time on their other responsibilities. Such conditions also, in the opinion of the division

chairpersons, were a cause of morale problems for the division chairpersons and the faculty.

The lack of sufficient time to complete their major responsibilities was considered to be a barrier to effectiveness. The causes of the lack of time varied from division to division, but there were some unanimous or nearly unanimous causes which were described. These causes included: (1) time involved in implementation of the collective-bargaining agreement; (2) complexity and number of programs for which they were responsible; (3) large number of full and part-time faculty who reported to them; (4) and, the time required to complete the faculty evaluation process. Other considerations at some colleges were the time required to work with division of continuing education and community services programs and an insufficient number of department chairpersons or curriculum coordinators to whom one could delegate some responsibility for programs.

In the career areas, especially in the health programs, one of the most time-consuming responsibilities was working with various accrediting and/or licensing agencies to establish additional standards. This required various annual or periodic reports. Career programs frequently included practicum or clinical experience as part of the course work, therefore affiliation agreements with community agencies needed to be developed and maintained. The career programs also required involvement with various program advisory committees. Although department chairpersons and program coordinators did a great deal of the work in these areas, these committees required overall supervision and involvement of the division chairpersons.

All of these responsibilities required time for planning, negotiation, preparation, and implementation. Many division chairpersons also believed that their workload was further increased because faculty members were unwilling to help out with many of these non-teaching responsibilities. The time involved for division chairpersons varied with the size and complexity of the division. Those divisions with several small programs, each with only one or two full-time faculty members appeared to require substantial involvement. In those divisions the replacement of full-time faculty required much of the division chairpersons' time in recruiting, as well as in orienting the new person. The time required was further exacerbated if the person was a program coordinator with a broad range of non-instructional responsibilities. The concern of the division chairpersons was that they did not have adequate time to carry out these non-instructional responsibilities. The time required to complete them prevented the chairpersons from spending sufficient time in other important areas of responsibility. Some expressed the opinion that they often considered situations to be out of control, as they literally went from crisis to crisis.

Another barrier which all of the division chairpersons identified was what they described as a frequent failure of senior administrators, including the president and the dean of academic affairs, to consult with them prior to making decisions or developing policies and plans which the division chairpersons would be expected to implement. They found this to be a barrier for several reasons. First, they believed they often had insights and information which, if considered, could have resulted in a different decision. Thus problems which frequently

resulted from such top-down decisions could have been avoided or would have more accurately reflected faculty and student needs. Secondly, because they were viewed as uninvolved in key decisions their credibility was jeopardized and their effectiveness was questioned by the faculty. Or, conversely, they were placed in a position where they needed to implement and support a decision with which they disagreed, thus they needed to argue, at least privately, with the dean or other senior administrators. In their opinion, early involvement would have been as they described it, a "win-win situation". Finally, they believed that it was difficult to get faculty, or at times themselves, invested in decisions or planning in which they were not involved. As a result, much of the potential and energy of the faculty was not tapped, and, as one division chairperson, said, "They're not using me anywhere near to my ability. I've got skills in this area [planning and program development] which are going unused."

Some division chairpersons shared the opinion that a related barrier to their effectiveness was the failure of the deans to share important information with them or not to share it in a timely manner. The type of information cited ranged from budget to matters related to collective-bargaining. Their arguments were that the more information they had the better able they were to carry out their responsibilities.

Most of the division chairpersons also shared the opinion that they did not have sufficient authority to carry out their responsibilities effectively. The collective-bargaining agreement, the dean and the president, and to some degree, the state system of higher education were

viewed as having placed limits on their authority, and consequently their effectiveness.

The collective-bargaining agreement, in their opinion, established procedures and norms which prevented them from rewarding faculty who were doing the best work or from effectively punishing those who were not. The collective-bargaining agreement also placed limits on what faculty could be expected to do in a given year or semester, including the number of course preparations, advisees, and other related activities. The division chairpersons wanted more authority and freedom to negotiate with individual faculty members to get things done.

The division chairpersons considered both the lack of adequate funds and the lack of control of those funds to be barriers to their effectiveness. In the opinion of the division chairpersons, if they had more funds, and had more autonomy in their allocation and expenditure, they would be able to use the available funds more efficiently and effectively. The division chairpersons believed that the dean of academic affairs and or the president could delegate that authority to them if they chose to do so.

Finally, in the judgment of the division chairpersons, part of the problem was outside of their individual colleges. They all agreed that public higher education in Massachusetts was inadequately funded by the Governor and the Legislature. Therefore, they had to do the best they could with what was made available to them.

Summary

This chapter presented and analyzed the case data that was collected from the interviews of the 10 division chairpersons, three academic deans, and three faculty members of career divisions in the sample. Additionally, the researcher included his own observations of division chairpersons in several settings including the monthly meetings of the State Council of Division Chairpersons, conferences for division chairpersons, and from his day-to-day experiences as a chairperson of a career division.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

This chapter includes a summary of the purpose, methodology, and findings of the study. Additionally, recommendations have been developed and are presented for consideration by persons who care about the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions and who are in a position to influence the division chairpersons' effectiveness. This group includes, but is not limited to: community college presidents, deans of academic affairs, chairpersons of career divisions, faculty of career divisions, boards of trustees, central offices of higher education systems, and state government leaders who appropriate funds and make policy involving community colleges. Finally, this chapter also includes a description of limitations of the study which have been identified by the researcher.

Summary

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify salient factors influencing the effectiveness of middle managers in higher education and to develop recommendations that will reinforce conditions contributing to effectiveness and alter conditions found to be inhibiting effectiveness.

Methodology

The case-study approach was utilized, with the interview as the primary method for data collection. The maximum variation sampling strategy with a purposeful sample was used. The primary unit of analysis was the individual chairperson and the primary data source was a sample of 10 chairpersons of career divisions at seven of the System's 15 colleges.

Findings

Analysis of the data revealed that there was much agreement among the division chairpersons in their responses to the questions posed during the interviews and from the observations of the researcher. Additionally the academic deans and the faculty were in agreement with each other and with the division chairpersons as to the factors influencing the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions.

The data revealed three basic categories of factors which influenced the effectiveness of division chairpersons. These categories were: leadership skills, organizational conditions, and the attitudes/expectations/values of the division chairpersons.

Leadership Skills: Effective division chairpersons needed to have skills in the areas of: (1) delegation; (2) motivation; (3) organization; (4) politics; (5) problem-solving; (6) mediation; (7) negotiation; (8) advocacy; (9) planning; (10) teaching; (11) decision-

making; (12) listening; (13) performance counseling; (14) collective-bargaining; (15) time management; (16) budgeting; and, (17) evaluation of teaching as well as other related skills.

Organizational Conditions: The effectiveness of the division chairpersons was influenced by organizational conditions (the organizational environment) including: (1) time available to complete administrative responsibilities; (2) availability of resources to support the division chairperson; (3) the division chairpersons' relationship with the deans and the deans' leadership style; (4) the division chairpersons' scope of responsibility/span of control and the complexity of the division; (5) the degree to which the organizational character of the college encouraged division chairpersons to actively involve themselves in the college and to increase their own effectiveness.

Attitudes/Expectations/Values: The effectiveness of the division chairpersons was influenced by their own attitudes/expectations/values as well as those of the deans and the faculty. These attitudes/expectations/values included: (1) the division chairpersons' desire to be in a position of influence in order to bring about change and to implement their ideas/values through programs, policies, and procedures; (2) the expectation of most division chairpersons that they would continue as division chairpersons or in some other administrative positions; (3) the desire of the division chairpersons to be problem solvers; (4) the division chairpersons' desire to be pro-active; (5) the division chairpersons' frustration with "red tape" and the "bureaucracy"; (6) failure to sufficiently trust the faculty; (7) failure to accept the fact that they (division chairpersons) were managers and thus needed to approach

and prioritize their responsibilities accordingly; (8) belief that they were powerless to increase their own effectiveness or to change conditions; (9) the deans' high level of verbalized expectations of division chairpersons and their frequent failure to allocate resources, hold the division chairpersons accountable, share information, or accept any responsibility for the chairpersons' effectiveness; (10) the faculty's expectation that the chairpersons' raison d'etre was to serve their needs and their frequent failure to accept any reciprocal responsibilities; (11) the reluctance of many division chairpersons to give up their teaching responsibilities; (12) the unwillingness of the division chairpersons to consistently address difficult personnel issues within their scope of responsibility; and, (13) the failure of the division chairpersons to place sufficient emphasis on key areas of responsibility because they found them to be less enjoyable and fulfilling than others.

There were then three basic categories of findings as to the factors which influence the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions. They included: (1) leadership skills; (2) organizational conditions; and, (3) attitudes/expectations/values.

Implications

Several implications can be inferred from the findings:

1. There is a need for division chairpersons to reassess their attitudes/expectations/values within the framework of their responsibilities and the expectations of the deans of academic affairs.

2. When a vacancy occurs for a chairperson of a career division,

a decision needs to be made as to whether an experienced and skilled administrator (usually from outside of the college) or an administratively inexperienced person (usually a faculty member from inside of the college) is needed.

3. There is a need to clarify and to prioritize the responsibilities of chairpersons of career divisions.

4. There is a need for on-going staff development for division chairpersons.

5. There is a need for the deans of academic affairs to give serious consideration to: (1) the nature and degree of their responsibility to help the division chairpersons to increase their effectiveness; and, (2) to the changes that they may need to make in their leadership style.

6. The community colleges' organizational structure should be reviewed within the framework of the mission of the college, and the responsibilities of chairpersons, especially chairpersons of career divisions.

7. The community colleges need to develop an effective process for organizational socialization and an organizational character which encourages and supports human resource development.

8. The recommendations and needs of chairpersons, especially those of career divisions, should be given serious consideration by management negotiators when collective-bargaining agreements are negotiated.

9. There is a need for the division chairpersons to have sufficient unstructured time to "manage by walking around."

10. There is a need for those in state government to recognize the importance of division chairpersons in insuring quality control by allocating funds for staff development, and, when necessary, additional positions.

Recommendations

Upon consideration of the findings and implications of the study, several general recommendations can be made. The reader needs to consider the recommendations within the context of their own organization in order to determine how the recommendations might apply.

1. The presidents and deans of academic affairs, in consultation with division chairpersons, should develop a common job description for chairpersons of career and non-career divisions throughout the community colleges. At a minimum, a precise, written job description should be developed at each community college.

The data indicated that a common job description for division chairpersons did not exist, although there was general agreement as to the responsibilities of the position and relative priority of each. The process of developing the job description and prioritization of the responsibilities would provide an excellent opportunity for the division chairpersons, deans of academic affairs, and, if appropriate, the presidents to develop a shared understanding of the nature and needs of the division chairperson position. This could lead to a better understanding of the resource needs, skills, and time required to be an effective chairperson. That shared understanding could also lead to the

identification of changes that need to be made to increase the effectiveness of division chairpersons and, also, a decision to make changes.

The job description and the shared understanding of the nature and needs of the position would go a long way toward attracting only those persons who believed that they could meet their own needs and achieve their personal goals (self-actualize) in such a position. The job description would help search committees which are frequently created to screen and recommend candidates, as it would help to create a more common frame of reference. Finally it would help to reinforce those persons who expect to pursue a career as an administrator, and deter those who do not. Frequently those who assume the position but who avoid the more onerous, yet critical responsibilities such as faculty evaluations and faculty discipline create problems which are not easily undone at higher levels. In fact, frequently they can not be undone.

2. Deans of academic affairs together with the division chairpersons should, at least twice each academic year, review the division chairpersons' objectives and the deans' expectations of the division chairpersons.

The data indicated that the division chairpersons: (1) gave the most attention to completing those tasks or objectives which the deans indicated were a high priority; (2) needed time and support to accomplish their objectives; and, (3) valued the opinion of the deans as to their effectiveness; yet, (4) that they believed that the deans did not really hold them accountable for other than a few major objectives.

The primary benefit of the reviews, one for setting goals and one

for reviewing the achievement of the goals that had been set, would be to provide an opportunity for the deans and the division chairpersons to discuss and agree upon the division chairpersons' goals and the expectations of the deans. The process would result in congruence between the expectations of both the deans and the division chairpersons.

These review sessions should take place prior to and at the end of the academic year. They would provide an excellent opportunity for the deans to engage in performance counseling with the division chairpersons and for the division chairpersons to engage in upward management.

The data indicated that the division chairpersons wanted opportunities to influence and shape policies within their divisions and in the college at large. The data indicated that this expectation of the division chairpersons was consistent with the expectations that the deans had of the division chairpersons. The annual goal-setting process would provide an opportunity for information sharing and a process of mutual influencing. It would effectively reinforce the energy and expectations of the division chairpersons while simultaneously eliminating or at least diminishing, what the division chairpersons perceived to be barriers to their effectiveness.

3. The community colleges need to promote and provide staff development opportunities for the division chairpersons to develop the skills needed to be effective leaders.

The data indicated that the division chairpersons wanted to be effective and that they recognized that they had several skills deficits which influenced their effectiveness. The division chairpersons

were willing and eager to participate in staff development that they perceived would help them to increase their effectiveness.

The need for staff development opportunities to develop and maintain skills would be particularly critical if the colleges continued the common practice of appointing persons from the faculty to division chairpersons positions who lack administrative experience and skills. If the presidents and deans are serious about their expectations of the division chairpersons they must provide the division chairpersons with the opportunity to develop and maintain the necessary skills. If the division chairpersons were able to develop or increase their skills in many of the areas which they identified, as well as in other areas, they could better serve all of their constituencies. They might also have the time to manage by walking around, which they valued.

The division chairpersons, deans, and faculty had a common definition of credibility for the division chairpersons, as they defined credibility. This definition was critical to the effectiveness of the division chairpersons. The combination of increased skills and more time would help the division chairpersons to maintain, and possibly to enhance, their credibility, and therefore their effectiveness, with both the deans and the faculty.

By promoting and providing staff development opportunities for the division chairpersons, the colleges would reinforce the division chairpersons' desire to increase their effectiveness, support their willingness to participate in staff development programs, and make strides towards eliminating perceived barriers to their effectiveness.

4. Community college presidents and their senior administra-

tive staff need to institute a review and assessment of the organizational character of their colleges to determine whether it is one which encourages and supports human resource development.

The faculty are the heart of any college. Their energies and abilities are necessary to provide quality programs and the changes necessary to maintain the viability of the colleges. The division chairpersons, because of their critical position at the nexus between the faculty and administration, are critical in translating goals and needs in both directions. Both the faculty and the division chairpersons work best when the organizational character fosters their initiation and ownership of activities which are congruent with the mission of the college.

The data indicated a strong interest on the part of the faculty to have quality programs and to do the work needed to accomplish that end. The data also indicated that the division chairpersons were perceived as the most important persons in enabling this to occur. These expectations and attitudes need to be reinforced by the organizational character of the college. If not, the barriers to the division chairpersons' effectiveness which were identified will be further enhanced and the division chairpersons' effectiveness diminished.

5. The division chairpersons should be given a substantive role in the collective-bargaining negotiations and related activities.

It was very evident that one of the division chairpersons' major areas of concern was the collective-bargaining agreement. Some of the concerns, such as the limits on their authority and impediments to collegiality may be inherent in the collective-bargaining process. The

division chairpersons simply need to learn to work within the framework of collective bargaining and to maximize opportunities to build positive and supportive work environments. The division chairpersons would probably be better able to accomplish this if they had a better understanding of the principles, strategies, and tactics of collective bargaining. At a minimum, such an understanding would help them to view the process more objectively.

It is also important for the division chairpersons to be given an opportunity to make substantive input into the collective-bargaining negotiations. This is essential because some of the major difficulties arising from the collective-bargaining agreement have resulted from specific terms of the negotiated agreements. Perhaps some of these difficulties could have been avoided if a division chairperson was a member of the negotiating team. In the opinion of the division chairpersons the management negotiators did not understand many of the implications of the agreements or the contract language which they proposed or had agreed upon, especially workload and evaluation. It was the division chairpersons, as first-line administrators, who had to bear the brunt of the problems of implementing what they perceived to be an ambiguously worded and somewhat unsound agreement.

Some progress may have already been made in regard to the division chairpersons having a more substantive role in collective-bargaining negotiations. During the completion of this study, the division chairpersons were given more, although still very limited, input into negotiation of the agreement that was being negotiated.

If the division chairpersons were given a substantive role in

negotiating the collective-bargaining agreement, it could give them more of a sense of ownership of the agreement and therefore could provide them with the motivation to implement the agreement more consistently and conscientiously. Such participation could reinforce those who perceive themselves to be managers and help those who are unclear about their role to gain more clarity. Participation could also result in a better agreement which incorporated the experience and insights of the division chairpersons who, in the main, are the primary implementors of the agreement.

6. State government, including the Chancellor and the Board of Regents, the legislature, and the governor need to provide additional resources, both human and material, to the community colleges to allow the division chairpersons to do their jobs more effectively. Additionally, they need to assess existing practices to determine whether they serve as impediments to providing quality and responsive educational programs.

The budgets for public higher education in Massachusetts generally increased during the 1980's. But, the scope of the mission of the community colleges continued to broaden as the community colleges attempted to respond to community needs and government mandates.

Career programs in particular lacked state of the art equipment and facilities as well as the funds to attract and hold quality faculty. Additional funds need to be made available if the division chairpersons are to be able to respond to the changing needs of their career fields, their service areas, and the students.

Existing practices which result in colleges frequently not receiv-

ing a budget until the academic year has started, positions not being released to be filled until well into the academic year, and the inability to carry funds from one fiscal year to the next do not allow for effective short and long term planning and management. Rather, in many areas, crisis planning has become the standard practice. This wastes both human and material resources.

The state government agencies must also encourage the negotiation of collective-bargaining agreements which are agreed upon in a timely fashion and which include language which allows for the maximization of resources, while also providing management with the tools to insure quality education.

The provision of additional resources and a change in practices which are perceived as barriers to effectiveness would reinforce the desire of the division chairpersons to be pro-active and responsive in planning and developing programs and their desire to provide high quality programs.

Limitations

Upon review of this case study it became clear that the study had some limitations which could have been addressed had they been considered while the study was being planned or completed.

1. One of the barriers to the effectiveness of the division chairpersons which was consistently identified by the division chairpersons was a perceived lack of sufficient time to complete their responsibilities. The researcher, in retrospect, made an assumption that there

was a commonly accepted amount of time which each person expected to work each week. The specific amount of time was not quantified in the researcher's mind. This assumption of a commonly accepted work week was not surfaced during the interview process and it was never tested in the interviews. Had it been tested, and if a specific weekly average of hours had been identified it would have given more meaning to the concern about inadequate time since it would have allowed for comparisons among division chairpersons and more specific recommendations.

2. Another time related barrier to the effectiveness of chairpersons of career divisions which was consistently identified was the perceived lack of sufficient unstructured time to manage by walking around. There was, once again, an assumption by the researcher that the faculty and the division chairpersons were on campus at the same time and that they were in close proximity to each other. It is possible that that was not the case and that the solution to the problem might be something other than more time.

3. The researcher did not interview any presidents to gain insight into their perceptions of the factors which influenced the effectiveness but, more importantly, their perception of the role and importance of chairpersons of career divisions. It may be that as the tone-setter for the colleges, the presidents would have been more important than the deans of academic affairs in influencing the effectiveness of the division chairpersons.

4. The researcher did not ask the deans how or whether, in their opinions, their leadership styles influenced the effectiveness of the division chairpersons. Their responses may have provided further in-

sights into their relationships with the division chairpersons as well as providing a basis for making specific recommendations regarding their leadership style when working with the division chairpersons.

A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX I

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Haverhill, MA 01830

Dear

I would like to thank you for agreeing to participate in the case study which I am completing as part of my doctoral dissertation at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst. It is my understanding that I will meet you at _____ on _____ for the interview. If for any reason you have any questions or if this interview has to be postponed, please call me at 617-373-0845 (Home) or 617-374-0721, extension 188 (NECC).

I would appreciate your assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire. You need not mail it to me before the interview. I will briefly scan the information prior to beginning the interview. The information, as noted in the instructions, will be very helpful during the interview as it will assist me in better understanding your context. It will also save both of us a great deal of time during the interview thus allowing us more time to focus upon and explore the primary area of the study.

Once again, thank you very much for participating in this study. If you have any questions, please call me.

Sincerely,

Paul M. Bevilacqua

APPENDIX II

Supplementary Written Questionnaire

Instructions: This brief questionnaire must be completed prior to the interview and given to the interviewer at the interview. The information contained in the responses will assist the interviewer during the interview without using up the time available in obtaining this basic data. The data will help to create part of the context of the interview and will be valuable in analyzing and interpreting the data obtained during the interview. Please attach any additional pages or clarifying information, if appropriate.

Name _____

Division _____

College _____

1. Names of the programs/or departments in the division and related information. (Attach additional pages if necessary).

Title of Program/Department	Day Div	DCE	No. of Fac. FT.	No. of Fac. PT.

Explanatory comments on above (if appropriate).

_____

_____

_____

2. Contract: Is your contract _____ 10 months? _____ 12 months?
Explanatory comments (if appropriate)

_____

_____

_____

3. Responsibility for DCE.

Do you have DCE responsibility? _____ yes _____ no

If yes, please briefly describe your responsibilities (add any other appropriate comments).

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. Describe the secretarial assistance and other clerical support available to you.

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. Describe any unique characteristics of the college or the division that would assist in understanding the context in which you work.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX III

Name _____

Position _____

College _____

Date _____

Interview Guide

I. Introduction*

A. Purpose of the study.

B. How and why interviewee was selected.

C. Use of information, confidentiality, anonymity.

D. Interested mainly in opinions, present and past experiences, as well as suggestions for the future.

E. Interviewee should feel free to request clarifications, raise questions, etc.

F. Request permission to tape-record and explain reasons for doing so.

***Most of this will have been briefly discussed during the personal contact made while arranging for the interview.**

II. Personal background

A. Name.

B. Educational background--degrees/disciplines, etc.

C. Length of time at the college.

D. Positions held at the college and number of years as division chairperson.

E. Other work or related experience prior to or concurrent with present position.

III. Reasons for seeking/continuing in position

A. Reasons applied for position.

B. Reasons accepted position.

C. Most enjoyable aspects of position.

D. Least enjoyable aspects of position.

E. Whether intends to remain in position. Reasons. Time period.

IV. Responsibilities, leadership, effectiveness

A. Opinion of their most important responsibilities, in order of importance (Try to get 3-5).

B. Opinion whether the dean of academic affairs agrees with this. Whether faculty agree. How judges.

C. Opinion of their effectiveness in carrying out these responsibilities. (Probe for specific reasoning; definition of effectiveness, etc.).

D. Criteria and methods used to measure their own effectiveness in carrying out the responsibilities identified in A (If necessary, probe for clarity, reasoning, etc.).

E. Criteria and methods used to measure their effectiveness overall (If necessary, probe for clarity, reasoning, etc.).

F. Opinion of major factors which have (or could have) the most positive influence on their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning).

G. Opinion of major factors (barriers) which limit their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning).

V. Increasing effectiveness

A. Opinion of their major strengths as a division chairperson which influence their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning and sources).

B. Opinion of any areas of weakness as a division chairperson which are barriers to their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning and sources).

C. Opinion of whether they want to increase their effectiveness.

D. Opinion of what can be done to increase their effectiveness (Probe to determine opinion of what can be done personally, by supervisor or others).

E. Opinion as to changes that need to be made, and on what levels, to increase their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning, etc.).

APPENDIX IV

989 Boston Road
Haverhill, MA 01830

Dear

I would like to thank you for agreeing to participate in the study which I am completing as part of my doctoral dissertation at the University of Massachusetts, at Amherst. It is my understanding that I will meet you at _____ on _____ for the interview. If for any reason you have any questions or if this interview has to be postponed please call me at 617-373-0845 (home) or 617-374-0721, extension 188 (NECC).

Once again, thank you very much for participating in this study. If you have any questions, please call me.

Sincerely,

Paul M. Bevilacqua

APPENDIX V

Name: _____

Position: _____

College: _____

Date: _____

Interview Guide for Deans/Faculty

I. Introduction*

A. Purpose of the study.

B. How and why interviewee was selected.

C. Use of information, confidentiality, anonymity.

D. Interested mainly in opinions, present and past experiences, as well as suggestions for the future.

E. Interviewee should feel free to request clarifications, raise questions, etc.

F. Request permission to tape-record and explain reasons for doing so.

***Most of this will have been briefly discussed during the personal contact made while arranging for the interview.**

II. **Personal Background**

A. Name

B. Educational background - degrees/disciplines, etc.

C. Length of time at the college.

D. Positions held at the college and number of years as faculty member/dean.

E. Other work or related experience prior to or concurrent with present position.

III. **Responsibilities, Leadership, Effectiveness**

A. Criteria they use (would use) in selecting a division chairperson (Probe for reasoning.)

B. Opinion of the most important responsibilities of a division chairperson in order of importance.

C. Opinion whether the dean of academic affairs/president agree

with this. Whether other faculty would agree. How judges.

D. Opinion of the effectiveness of division chairpersons they have observed in carrying out these responsibilities (Probe for specific reasoning; definition of effectiveness, etc.)

E. Criteria and methods used to measure the effectiveness of a division chairperson overall (If necessary, probe for clarity, reasoning, etc.).

F. Opinion of major factors which have (or could have) the most positive influence on the effectiveness of a division chairperson (Probe for reasoning).

G. Opinion of major factors (barriers) which limit the effectiveness of a division chairperson they have observed (Probe for reasoning).

IV. **Increasing Effectiveness**

A. Opinion of major areas of strength which division chairpersons need in order to be effective (Probe for reasoning and sources).

B. Opinion of any areas of weakness as division chairpersons which are barriers to their effectiveness (Probe for reasoning and sources).

C. Opinion of whether they want their division chairperson to increase his/her effectiveness.

D. Opinion of what can be done to increase their effectiveness (Probe to determine opinion of what can be done personally, by supervisor or others).

E. Opinion as to the prospects of action being taken or attitudes changed, on any level, to increase the effectiveness of division chairpersons (Probe for reasoning, etc.).

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